

7591

THE NEW ERA

(The English Organ of the New Education Fellowship)

Vol. 9

JANUARY, 1928

No. 33

EDITIONS:

ENGLISH (Quarterly)

THE NEW ERA

Mrs Beatrice Ensor, 11, Tavistock Sq., London

FRENCH (Monthly)

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SPANISH (Monthly)

REVISTA DE PEDAGOGIA

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SWEDISH (Quarterly)

PEDAGOGISKA SPÖRSMÅL

Ester Edelstam & M Montelius, Enkelsbergsgatan 15, Stockholm

Subscriptions
per ann., post free
4s. 6d. (\$1.15)

PROVISIONALLY AFFILIATED TO THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP:

Argentina (Monthly): Nueva Era

Dr J Rezzano, 3159 Humberto I, Buenos Ayres

Belgium: Het Schoolblad de Aktieve School

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Chile (Monthly): La Nueva Era

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The above editions are not translations of each other, each Editor being free to fill the special needs
of his own readers)

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Subscription to *The New Era* is 4/6 (\$1.15) per annum.

Single copies, 1/2 (30cts.), post free.

(Foreign cheques accepted but 10 cts. should be added to cheques drawn on distant banks.)

Published: JANUARY, APRIL, JULY, OCTOBER

THE NEW ERA, 11, TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1, ENGLAND.

AGENTS—London: W. H. Smith & Son; F. Henderson, 76, Charing Cross Road.

U.S.A.: Bookshop for Boys and Girls, 270, Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.

S. Africa: Juta & Co., Ltd, Booksellers, P.O. Box 30, Capetown (also Johannesburg)

Printed and made in Great Britain.

THE OUTLOOK TOWER

In *The Impatience of a Parson** the Rev. H. R. L. Sheppard, late Vicar of St. Martin-in-the-Fields, London, makes a strong plea for the recovery of vital Christianity. He writes:—"I am compelled with the greatest reluctance, to believe that the Churches have corporately so misunderstood the message of their Founder, and so mishandled and mislaid His values—the values of His Father, God—that what survives and does duty nowadays through the Churches as Christianity, is a caricature of what Christ intended." The writer believes that this is "largely the fault of institutionalising religion, and that in this world crisis we need the saving power of a large and fearless religion."

Are we not in the same plight in education? Are not vital and dynamic changes necessary in our schools? Should we not seek, through right education, to bring about a changed attitude to life and a deeper realisation of what the Fatherhood of God and the Brotherhood of Man mean when applied to world problems?

Is anyone really satisfied with the results of our educational system? Parents complain, employers complain, teachers complain; yet we all find ourselves in a vicious circle, out of which only a great reformer with vision and courage can lead us by reconstructing the educational system in such a way that it fills more closely the need of modern life.

In no period of history has the human race witnessed so much material progress and so many radical changes as during the last fifty years, but correspondingly little has been done to alter the educational curriculum. With the extension of secondary education a great danger threatens—the danger of systemization, of standardizing human nature. The curriculum of the secondary school is planned for one type of human being only, the intellectual type—but we must work to the end that the other types, the

emotional, the motor and the sensory, also receive the education they need. The full development of their potential powers is equally important to the welfare of society.

Again, in the matter of discipline: inhibition, repressions, punishment, imposed authority, cannot prepare for democracy and self-government, for true citizenship.

The separation of boys and girls during adolescence is not the best foundation for the free camaraderie which exists between the sexes in later life when woman takes her place beside man in professional and public life.

Individual competition, narrow sectarianism, religious instruction, which is rapidly becoming nothing more than a devitalised compromise in our schools, will not produce citizens able to meet the great problems of the day in a spirit conducive to their true solution.

Psychologists and pedagogues have demonstrated that individuals develop at different rates and in different ways; they have revealed the waste of time involved in schools which still retain ordinary forms or standards. There are pioneers and rebels in every country, in every type of school, but at present they are overwhelmed by system.

Examinations

Let us take one aspect of our system of education—our examinations. On every side we hear the same complaint that there is a tendency to make examination results the focal point of all education. The present school leaving examinations are merely a test of intellectual knowledge of a few subjects and are suited to less than 50 per cent of the children who attend the secondary schools. The standard of these examinations is constantly raised and children are forced, whatever their temperament or type, to spend their school time learning examination subjects to the exclusion of the development of all those functions of a human being which are not purely intel-

* Hodder and Stoughton (London), 3/6.

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lectual. Intellectual qualities of a special character are being given an entirely false pre-eminence, yet these examinations are made the entrance to most of the professions.

For instance, a girl or boy with marked musical ability rarely possesses the type of brain suited to the London Matriculation examination, and yet Matriculation or its equivalent is now asked of candidates who wish to take the Teachers' Diploma in music. In many cases the effort required to bring the academic subjects to Matriculation standard would do irreparable harm to the creative talent. Or again, in the case of domestic subjects teachers—the teaching of domestic subjects needs ability in practical organising, skill in craft, the capacity to teach—yet Matriculation again confronts anyone who wishes to enter a training college for domestic subjects. So to-day there is scarcely a profession which a boy or girl can enter which does not demand Matriculation or its equivalent as the first step.

One sympathises with the desire to raise the standard of education of all entrants into the professions which perhaps in the past have been considered inferior, but surely the test for professions should be general intelligence, general knowledge, wide contacts, creative ability and initiative, and not specialised knowledge acquired mostly in an artificial manner from textbooks. That a man has a long list of examination certificates does not reveal whether he can follow a profession with insight, creativeness and character. How many of us in selecting staff for our schools have received wonderful lists of certificates and qualifications from applicants, and when we come to interview one of them we see before us, more often than not, a person drained of vitality, lacking in the experience of living and without that self-knowledge which comes most easily to us in those long, lazy hours in which we have time to "invite the soul." If as time goes on employers in general come to discount the value of examination records as a true indication of capability perhaps we shall come near striking

the root of the examination evil. We shall come to realise that the person with many certificates is often one who has spent the precious years of youth in academic studies, who has had little time to acquire those real wisdoms that come only from the living of life.

The Universities, perhaps, are in a different category from the schools, for it is their purpose to attract the academic type, and examinations that will reveal intellectual qualities chiefly are perhaps justified for entrance into a university.

Elementary schools, which for some years have been comparatively free from the examination curse, are now coming under the same blight. At the age of eleven-plus the children may pass into the secondary schools, and the entry to those schools is often through *competitive* examination. The elementary schools feel that they will be judged largely by their examination results; cramming will be the inevitable outcome.

With such conditions may we not say that our schools have become as institutionalised as the Churches, that they are throttled by system? With Mr. Sheppard we can say that we "do not think the Kingdom of God will come through committees and committee work," through boards of officials strongly entrenched behind tradition. We need a new simplicity and naturalness in our approach to our problems and, in education especially, we need to keep close to *the child within ourselves* if we are to understand the needs of our own children. Mr. Sheppard describes the kind of people we need in our educational work when he says: "I believe too that our Lord wants a company of strong, brave, happy companions of the out-and-out sort, the type that would be thought too dangerous and outspoken to have a hand in those policies of compromise without which little can now be effected in Church or State. . . I think He wants men as loving and as lovable as Francis of Assisi. . . . It was not the poverty of Francis that caught the imagination of the world, but his joyousness, his simplicity, his foolishness if you like, which was that of a man who

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actually dared to live as if he were really in the presence of God. . . ."

Signs of Freedom (U.S.A.)

To those watching the horizon a ray of light is spreading that may be the herald of the dawn. Few have realised yet the importance of Dr. Harold Rugg's work at the Lincoln School, New York. Dr. Rugg and his colleagues have been carrying out a vast experiment in curriculum research which must have far-reaching results in breaking down the present outgrown system. The results of this investigation have been assembled in twelve books* which are being used experimentally in trial editions by more than one hundred school systems in the United States. (A school system in the States is about equivalent to an "education authority" in England.)

"The future of democracy in the States depends upon the intelligence of the average man. Pioneer educationists believe that the known facts of intelligence are worthy of the hypothesis that there is in the group-mind a capacity sufficient to express its will effectively through industrial, social and political machinery. This means that potential capacities must be transformed into dynamic abilities. We must substitute critical judgment for impulsive response as the basis of decisions affecting social and political issues. A fundamental reconstruction of the school curriculum is the necessary first step in the process. Especially through the curriculum of the social sciences must we accustom youth to daily deliberation and critical thought."

* *Social Science Pamphlets*—an experimental series—organised under the direction of Dr. Harold Rugg in the Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City.

"How Nations Live Together"

"Industries and Trade which Bind Nations Together" (Parts 1 and 2).

"Resources, Industries and Cities."

"Town and City Life."

"America's March Towards Democracy" (Parts 1 and 2).

"Problems of American Government"

"Explorers and Settlers Westward Bound."

"The Mechanical Conquest of America."

"Problems of American Industry and Business"

"America and her Immigrants"

In Europe Dr. Ovide Decroly has been working on similar lines but has concentrated his work upon the needs of younger children. Dr. Decroly's work is based on the fact that all true education is auto-education through contact with the things in which a child is naturally interested. Activity is planned round certain *centres of interest* which vary with age, development and home environment. The Method is one that can be adopted by any school without any costly outlay for apparatus.†

Russia

The herd instinct, rampant among nations as well as individuals, has warped our vision of Russian affairs. While deploring many of the methods employed to attain certain political ends, we should be able to disentangle our personal prejudices and review the good and bad impartially. Few can do this. It can perhaps only be done by the daily practice of creating "goodness by finding it in every single soul and by treating the motives of men and women as if they were as much to be respected as our own."

We recently had a very significant experience. We heard a lecture on Russia by an eminent authority, a university man who knew and loved Russia, who had studied Russia for a number of years and who had been in that country at the time of the Revolution. He spoke with knowledge, insight and sympathy until he came to the Soviet regime. He had not seen conditions under the Soviet at first-hand and yet he had not a good word to say for any side of it; even the Soviet educational policy he held up to ridicule, giving inaccurate information and selecting, consciously or unconsciously, the parts that were imperfect and leaving out all that was good.

We have always tried in these editorial pages to give first-hand impressions, but our plans to visit Russia this autumn had to be given up. We give in this number of the magazine the first-hand impressions of some of our friends, of

† *The Decroly Class*, by A. Hamaide (Dent, London).

well-known reputation, from whom we can be sure of receiving a clear and relatively unbiased statement of facts. We say *relatively*, because on the subject of Russia it is almost impossible to get an unprejudiced account of what is going on. The statement that visitors to Russia are permitted to visit only "show" schools is quite untrue in the case of our contributors Dr. Lucy Wilson and Dr. Carleton Washburne, who wandered quite freely over the countryside this autumn.

Russian educational leaders are the first to say that they have not evolved an ideal system of education. In most countries there are a few experimental schools and classes, but education in Russia is one vast experiment and educational laboratory. It behoves us as students of education to keep in touch with what is happening and not shut ourselves away from this extraordinary and fertile field of experiment because we disapprove of this or that political policy.

Have you ever indulged in a daydream of a country in which no educational system exists, in which you were free from traditions, free from established economic institutions, free from educational authorities, inspectors, examinations and all the rest of the top-heavy structures that build themselves upon the simple need of the child to contact his environment naturally and creatively. . . . You are appointed director of education in this country. What would you do?

The Revolution of 1917 did not provide quite these dream conditions but it did provide an opportunity for a mighty challenge, for a total re-organisation. The material difficulties were great—poor buildings, little or no equipment, lack of books, teachers trained in the old methods who had to be converted to the new, a population of which 47 per cent (between 15 and 50 years of age) were unable to read, unsettled conditions, all complicated the problem and made the task heroic. It may be that all great ideas are simple; it is in their practical realisation that we allow ourselves to be entangled by complexity. Most of us agree that we need in our lives an har-

monious blending of the culture of the towns and the wholesomeness of life lived near to Nature, we need winds and seas and trees and sweet earth as well as contact with our fellowmen. The Russian sees this problem simply and arranges that the children of the country boarding-schools shall exchange for part of the year with children in the town schools. Imagine the uprooting necessary to accomplish a plan of this kind in England!

Quoting from Scott Nearing's excellent little book *Education in Soviet Russia*—"The Soviet educational authorities explained the purpose of their plan as follows.—'Children of workers and peasants do not go to school in order to leave their class, to rise above it, to become intellectuals, as was the case in former times, but in order to join the organised advance-guard of their class, and become worthy collaborators and comrades of the workers.' " Therefore, "at the foundation of the whole programme lies the study of human labour and its organisation." The Soviet Constitution defines *labour* not as the word is usually understood but as "effort that is productive or useful to society," and the educational system is based upon the rearing of the young in the spirit of *collectivism*.

Russian educational leaders have studied the new psychologies and modern pedagogy that are affecting other parts of the world. Dewey, Kilpatrick, Thorndike, Montessori, Decroly, Washburne, Parkhurst, are as well known in Soviet Russia as in their own countries. Yet the Soviet educators were wise in their realisation that no scheme or method could be imported from another country. They culled the essence from all progressive thought and then sought something that would be suited to their own country, their own people. The plan they have built up, and which has been found the most suitable so far, is known as the Complex method. It is a blend of the Project method and the Dalton Plan and founded on the Soviet's ideal of co-operative society. A "complex" is a point of

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interest around which courses of study are built. The Dalton Plan in its purer forms was found too individualistic; it did not give sufficient opportunity for group work which is now so dear to the Russian heart. Social studies, the Community, direct contact with environments through excursions, surveys, field work, contact with the past through museums, art galleries, etc., all find a place in the Complex system. In all these activities the pupil is kept close to the problems of his own normal life.

Formerly the only language of instruction was Russian. Now *national* culture is considered of great importance, and in many of the autonomous republics within the Union of Soviet Republics instruction is given in their own language. In six universities the instruction is already being given in the respective national languages.

Co-education is the rule, and self-government in the schools reflects the Soviet's ideal of the responsibility of the citizen to the State. During the last few years attention and money have been concentrated on technical education, for Russia sees that her economic future depends on the workman's skill in agriculture and manufactures.

One of the most inspired leaders of the educational movement is Mme. Kroupskaya, the widow of Lenin, who has given her life to the children and has won the love of all. Dr. Lucy Wilson says of her: "Few educators of any nation have a keener sense of ultimate values. With the aid of others, for Kroupskaya is a fine practical Collectivist, she seeks out the underlying principle of each new movement, regardless of its source. Then she considers whether it is worth while to try to adapt the plan to Russian children, and, finally, how best to do so." An example of Kroupskaya's insight can be seen in the following extract from an article by her:—

Student self-government cannot be a copy of the forms of the political life of adults, for, in the life of children, neither class struggle nor class domination can take place. The school is rather an embryo and a symbol of the future society without classes.

In the following pages we give two accounts of the work of Stanislaus Shatzky, one of the greatest educational geniuses of our time.

N.E.F. Research

As decided at the Locarno Conference, the Fellowship is embarking on some simple research work. At present we have not sufficient funds to appoint a psychologist to undertake this work and we ask all members of the Fellowship and readers of the magazine to co-operate with us in our enquiries. Two questionnaires are being prepared and will be sent to representative schools within the next few months.

(1) *Questionnaire 1* has been drawn up by Dr. O. Decroly, Dr. Ad. Ferrière, Prof. P. Bovet and Mme Philippi van Reesema, and will be submitted for comment to Dr. Cyril Burt, Dr. W. Boyd, Prof. Terman, Dr. Carson Ryan, and other experts. It is an endeavour to discover whether it is possible for a teacher, by answering these simple questions, to distinguish the main psychological types amongst her pupils. We often say that education should be adapted to the needs of different types of children, but can we decide definitely to which type any child belongs? Will teachers who apply for this questionnaire state how many answer sheets they would like: an answer sheet will be provided for each child concerned. Probably each school will not wish to undertake more than six.

(2) *Questionnaire 2* has been prepared by Mr. H. C. Dent in co-operation with members of the N.E.F.'s English committee. It is an attempt to discover what are the common principles (if any) animating the many varied "experimental" classes and schools. In this case only one questionnaire will be necessary for each school.

The results obtained from these questionnaires will be analysed and published. Names of schools will, of course, not be mentioned.

Will schools that would like to receive

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these questionnaires please send the Editor a postcard?

It is unlikely that they will be ready before the New Year.

Library of Textbooks

We are planning to collect a library of the best textbooks, on all subjects for all ages, that have been found of value in progressive schools. This library will be at the disposal of our members, who will be able either to consult it personally or have a selection of books sent by post. We shall publish from time to time lists of these textbooks in the magazine.

Will members assist us in this effort by sending us the names of books which they have found of special value in their work? All we need is the name of the book, the publisher, if possible, and the ages of children which it serves. Readers who respond to this request will be helping us in a real way and also helping other seekers.

Collection of Educational Apparatus

We wish to have at our London office specimens of all kinds of apparatus that have been used successfully in different schools. We would be very grateful if schools that have made their own apparatus would have a duplicate set made and sent to us for this permanent exhibition, which, we hope, will be a great service to teachers seeking new ways. We shall also send selections of apparatus to the provinces when our lecturers are touring.

SUB-EDITOR'S NOTES

Spring Visits of Dr. Decroly and Dr. Adler

Dr. Ovide Decroly

We have invited Dr. O. Decroly, of Brussels, to London for the week-end 26-28th January in order that he may give to our members and others a detailed account of his method of primary teaching, now world-famous. Dr. Decroly is one of the greatest experts on the curriculum for children up to 14. His method has been used for many years in his school in Brussels and is now adopted in some of the State schools. Mlle. Hamaide,

Dr. Decroly's collaborator, will accompany him and will conduct special classes in which she will teach exactly how the method is applied. Dr. Decroly will also show his film recording results of psychological studies of infants. This will be of special interest to parents and welfare workers. During this week-end there will be social meetings and an exhibition of Dr. Decroly's apparatus, in addition to lectures and classes.

Dr. Alfred Adler

Probably in May a similar week-end will be arranged for Dr. Adler, the founder of the school of Individual Psychology.

Editor's Visit to the U.S.A.

Our Editor will visit the States in the spring, and we hope that Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, the Director of the German Section of the N.E.F., will sail with her. Mrs. Ensor will arrive in New York about the 21st February, speak at the Boston Convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (25th February—1st March), attend the Conference of the Progressive Education Association (8-9th March), and then proceed on a lecturing tour as far as Chicago. Approximately the towns visited will be as follows, but the tour will doubtless vary somewhat in different directions:—New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, D.C., Wilmington, St. Louis, Chicago, Winnetka, Detroit, Cleveland, Kalamazoo, Buffalo, Pittsburg, Milwaukee.

Dr. Rotten's tour will probably plan in much the same way. All details of *Dr. Rotten's tour* are in the hands of *Mr. John Rothschild, The Open Road, 2, West 46th Street, New York.* *Mrs. Ensor's tour* is being arranged by *Miss E. Bloomfield, 203, West 107th Street, New York.* Will those who wish to have a lecture from either Dr. Rotten or Mrs. Ensor (or both) kindly communicate with the respective organisers?

Readers should turn to page 38 for definitions of exactly what is meant by the variously named schools in Russia.

The Good and Bad in Russian Education

By Carleton Washburne

(Superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Illinois, Representative in Russia for the New Education Fellowship, August, 1927)

EDUCATION in Russia to-day is an exceedingly interesting combination of certain elements of the New Education with other elements of the old Russia's schools are new and progressive in much of their methodology, in the activities and project work of the children, in the re-organized curriculum from which many traditional topics have been removed, and particularly in the spirit of experimentation. Russia retains, on the other hand, the restrictions of the old education in her highly centralized control of all schools, in her ignoring of individual differences, and in her attempt to form the minds of all her children in one common mould.

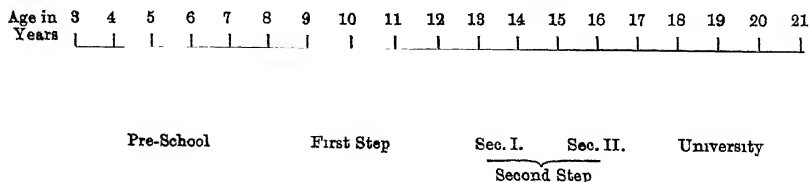
But perhaps the most significant phase of Russian education is the vital part it plays in the New Russia. No other nation in the world takes the question of education so seriously or sees so clearly that the nation of to-morrow is being made in the schools of to-day.

In this article it is impossible to give an adequate picture of Russian education as a whole. What Russia is doing for her 300,000 waifs; the factory schools; the opportunities for adult workers to study music, art, and literature; the Rabfacs in which adult illiterates are given schooling and vocational training;

the battle against illiteracy waged by evening classes for peasants and by reading-rooms and libraries; the great "Palace of Culture" just being completed in Leningrad; the nation-wide health drive, with factory basketball teams, swimming teams, boat crews, with the great physical education demonstration week in Moscow last August, and with the Institute for Welfare of Motherhood and Babyhood in Leningrad; the great universities with their thousands of students and their scientific research—these and dozens of other characteristics of Russia's great educational system, cannot be touched upon. It will be necessary to confine ourselves to the common schools—the regular State schools for children from the age of three to the age of seventeen.*

These common schools are called United Labour Schools, and the education they give is called Social Education.

The organization of the United Labour Schools is much more like the American organization than like the English. There is a single school system for all children who go to school—an entirely simple progression from one unit to the next. The following diagram (figure) shows the scheme:—



*In this article we are dealing exclusively with Russia proper (R.S.F.S.R.), not with the other five Republics of the Soviet Union (White Russia, Ukraine, Trans-Caucasus, Turkmenistan, and Uzbe-

kistan); these five are autonomous in education as in most matters, but as a result of frequent conferences are, I understand, much like Russia proper in their educational systems.

THE GOOD AND BAD IN RUSSIAN EDUCATION

From this it will be seen that the first school unit, the Pre-school for children from 3 to 7, corresponds with the English Infant School Under 2 per cent. of the children in Russia have access to Pre-schools—only 11 per cent in Moscow Province. The Pre-schools, where they exist, are probably the most progressive, experimental unit in the Russian system. Certainly those we saw were delightful.

[May I pause here to say parenthetically that we were *not* guided to schools. We went about freely in three provinces—Moscow, Leningrad, and Nijni Novgorod—to city and rural schools, sometimes taking random points on a map, so that none could say we were even unconsciously guided. We usually went quite alone (Mrs. Washburne and I), except for our interpreter, a young Anglo-Russian Jewess. We almost never indicated in advance where we were going. Our school visits were obviously unexpected.]

The Pre-school in which we spent the most time was in a village (Malakhofka) about twenty miles from Moscow—far enough out so that horses shied violently at the strange sight of a motorcar. The building—like most schoolhouses in Russian villages—was made of logs. There were two group rooms, one for the five-year-olds, one for the six. Between them was a small woodworking shop. There was also a rather large room for rhythmic and dancing, a bathroom, a kitchen, and a bedroom for the teachers. Most village schools provide teachers' living quarters. There was also a large porch, or wooden terrace. Behind the school was a vegetable garden.

The children were working in their garden when we reached the school. A little boy of five took me by the hand and led me from row to row. "These are carrots; these are cabbages; these are potatoes," he explained to me. "He is chairman of the garden committee," said the teacher.

The teacher, Anna Tumorovskaya, was very attractive, enthusiastic, intelligent, refined; a little bashful, yet so full of interest in her work that she soon forgot herself. All the Russian teachers we met

impressed us favourably. Anna (her last name was too hard for us to use) took us into the school and showed us the children's work. There were weather charts and attendance charts kept by the children, there were wooden boats and toys the children had made; there were things modelled from clay—in fact, all the things one sees in any good New School for little children.

She showed us how she taught reading and number, the latter growing out of the children's projects. Her methods were modern and good.

"Would you like to see the children have a sun bath?" asked Anna. We would—and did. They lay on their tummies, naked in the grass, while the sun beat down on them. After a few minutes a signal was given and they all turned over on their backs. When they were well sunned, Anna's assistant, Soya, called them for their shower. She had a large sprinkling-can full of cold water; the children came up in turn to be sprinkled, then ran gasping and laughing into the school, rubbing down with their towels. They dressed, then set the table for dinner, and invited us to eat with them. It was a wholesome, appetizing meal.

Usually there are fifty children in that school. Half of them were away returning the visit of another school when we were there. Anna's school is not a show school—we usually avoided such. She apologized for its poverty and crudity. But it is an experimental school, and Anna is a well-trained, unusually alert teacher.

Above the Pre-school comes the First Step. This is a four-year school for children of 8 to 11 or 12. It is the most nearly universal school of Russia. Nearly every village has its school of the First Step, except where several such schools are consolidated and take care of a group of villages.

Most children of Russia (between 70 and 85 per cent) go to school for at least three or four years (or part of each of three or four years) in First Step schools. This number has steadily increased since

1922, when less than 50 per cent of Russia's children were in school.

Let me describe one of the crudest of the First Step schools we visited. We had gone up the Neva River in a steamboat almost to its head (Lake Ladoga). At Piesky (a tiny village we had spotted on the map) we disembarked and visited the log school house; but we wanted to get further from the beaten path, so we got a boy (a half-wit) to row us across the river, we bailing the water out of the boat with a tin as fast as the waves came in over the gunwales. On the other side (after visiting the village school of Anenskoe) we sought out a peasant, who with much persuasion hitched up his springless cart, threw in some hay, and took us across fields, through woods and over streams to a village (Gori) that was on no railroad and on no navigable stream.

The astonished, barefoot teacher in the school was most hospitable. She showed us the children's work, the shop in which they had made fascinating toys, their drawings, their text-books, and, most illuminating of all, the report of the inspector. He had got to the school only once last year, but he had stayed three days!

His report was a long one. It made recommendations concerning the building and ground and concerning the teaching methods "Your children haven't enough variety in their play," it said. "They are getting tired of the same games on the playground. Bulletin 18 will give you suggestions for improving student government. In your discussion period the children are interfering too much with each other; there should be more chance for longer reports. Bulletin 40 will help you to organize Complexes for fourth class"; and so on.

The health drive in Russia was evident in this school as everywhere. There were posters made by the children illustrating the lungs, the pores of the hand, simple rules of home hygiene ("My mother sweeps with a *wet broom*"—illustrated; "My mother washes dishes with *hot water*"—also illustrated; and so on).

The teacher insisted on our staying to tea. We had a stimulating conversation with her husband, an intelligent member of the local Soviet, while her little girl played around us. Then we joggled on across country to Mga, where a dim, candle-lighted train took us back to Leningrad.

Above the First Step comes the Second Step divided into two sections. Section I is a three-year course for 12, 13 and 14-year-old children. Section II is a two-year course for children from 15 to 17. The principal difference between the two sections is that the general projects ("Complexes") of Section I give way to vocational training in Section II. In both sections about 70 per cent of the day is spent on academic work, which is practically continuous for the five years.

Each Second Step school usually houses a First Step school in the same building. One has, therefore, the typical 9-year United Labour School of the cities and the larger villages. Sometimes Section II of the Second Step is lacking and one has the 7-year school.

There are not nearly enough of these 7-year and 9-year schools to go round; so pupils from schools of the First Step are selected by their teachers for work in the Second Step. They are never selected by examination; examinations everywhere are taboo as a means of determining entrance to a higher school or university. Other things being equal, the First Step teacher selects the child or children having the most ability for higher grade work. But if intellectual ability is anywhere nearly equal, the child of the worker or poor peasant is always given preference over any other child.

By way of contrast with the village schools of the First Step let me describe very briefly the magnificent new 9-year school just being completed in Leningrad.

It is built of poured concrete with thick walls built to last centuries. It has shops, laboratories, cooking and sewing rooms, gymnasium, baths, even an astronomical observatory. Everything in it is substantial, simple, thoroughly good. Except



A. LUNACHARSKY

The People's Commissar of Education



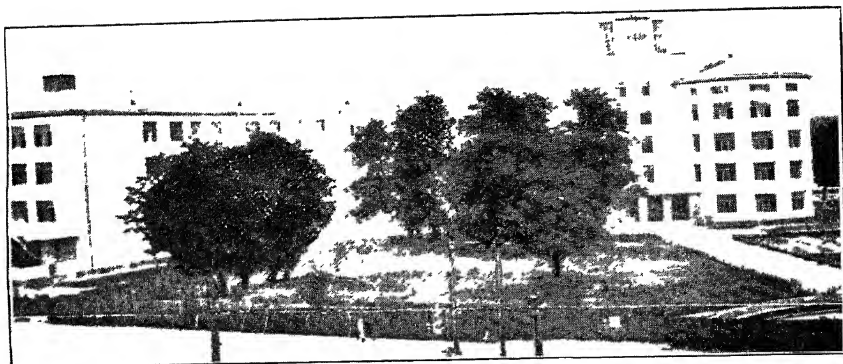
PROF. A. PINKEVITCH

President of Second Moscow State University



Stanislaus Shatzky (Managing Director rural schools, Kaluga, Director First Experimental Station, Moscow) and Mrs. Shatzky

(See Page 13)



A new school in Leningrad for children 8 to 16, 25 class rooms, 1,000 children (School No 68) See page 10



The little gardeners just outside their log school house at Nizni-Novgorod



A primitive shower bath following the sun bath in the experimental Pre-school at Nizni-Novgorod, 20 miles from Moscow

for the expensive private Lyceum, in Amsterdam, and a ridiculously extravagant high school building on the iron range in Minnesota, I do not think I have ever seen a finer Secondary School building.

Throughout the Pre-school, First Step and Section I of the Second Step, Russian schools make use of the "Complex" system—a modified form of the project method, and not unlike the Decroly method. A single topic, called a Complex, is made the unifying centre for a wide range of school activities. At first all subjects were taught through Complexes; now there is some academic work and regular drill in addition to them.

"Health" may be the Complex for a certain group; they may go out into the village and inspect the sanitary conditions, report back in the school, make the report the basis for reading, for social science, for the study of hygiene, and so on. Much of the work of the school will, for a period, centre round the health Complex. Then "Labour" may be the next Complex, then something else.

These Complexes are determined in Moscow. All education in Russia is highly centralized in the People's Commissariat of Education, to which the abbreviated title Narkompros is given. Narkompros decides what Complexes shall be used each year, how much time shall be given to academic work, what types of vocational training shall be given in Section II of the Second Step—in short, Narkompros runs the schools of Russia.

It runs them through a hierarchy, of course, each lower unit having some degree of autonomy and freedom; but in its centralization of authority Russia resembles France, and even goes farther, in contrast to the freedom given to the local units in Germany to-day, in England, and in America.

All children go to the State schools. Private schools, private tutors even, and of course parochial schools, are all strictly forbidden. The State attaches too much importance to its schools to allow any undirected person to tamper with educa-

tion. The rising generation is to be made 100 per cent communistic. All instruction, all social science in general, is directed to this end. Even the literature and general reading is carefully selected to give just one side—the struggle of the working class under the heel of autocracy and capitalism, and its ultimate emancipation through revolution. The dignity of labour is exalted: private profit execrated.

The schools are also atheistic. So are many, if not most, of the teachers. I asked Anna if she were an atheist. She smiled at the absurdity of the question—"Of course. Aren't you?" "Do you teach these little babies to be atheists?" "Well, I don't say, 'There is no God,' because some of their parents still believe and would be alienated if I did. But I show them that when a seed grows it is the sun and air and water that makes it grow; that when there is thunder it is not God thundering, but electricity leaping from cloud to cloud. I teach them in such a way that in time they will see for themselves that there is no God."

This is quite characteristic. The only God the Russians knew was the God of the Orthodox Russian Church, who divinely appointed the Czar to rule over them, whose priests linked religion with superstition, and bade the people submit to their rulers. In throwing out the Czar the communists threw out his God and priests. There is freedom of worship in the churches, but the authorities hope that in another generation or two there will be none who wish to worship in these churches.

There is one mitigation to the centralized control of education. This is in the State system of experimental schools. I do not think any other nation in the world has so generally established experimental schools as part of its educational system. These schools have definite problems to work out, and their findings determine the programmes and method outlines sent out by Narkompros.

Anna's school, it will be remembered, was an experimental school. She is

working, over a period of three years, on the problem of whether children are more interested in group activities or in individual activities. As a phase of the experiment each child has an individual garden plot, but has an interest in the common garden. In which gardens do the children show more interest? Where do they work better? Careful observations are made and records kept. Once a month these are summarized and sent to Narkompros. The school inspectors and others visit this experiment, call conferences of the teachers, discuss results and make recommendations.

The programme of the Russian schools is centralized, but it is far from static. It is undergoing constant change and revision.

Just as there is a single programme and method outline for all Russian schools, so is there an ignoring of the individual differences that exist among the children. We saw no sign of any attempt to recognize differences in intelligence. Children are handled *en masse* everywhere. In one-room country schools children are admitted only in alternate years because the teacher cannot handle more than two classes. This is one of the most backward phases of education in Russia to-day. About 25 per cent of the schools of Section I of the Second Step have an emasculated Dalton Plan—but the individual progress element of it is omitted!

In its "Complex" method Russia is using certain elements of the New Education. In its handwork and activity it is educationally progressive. Its system of experimental schools is admirable. All schools have pupil government. Most purely traditional and abstract school subjects have been replaced by practical things like health education, the meaning and dignity of labour, and an understanding of the State and its problems. In these respects Russia is probably the most widely progressive country, educationally, in the world. Almost every country can boast of some schools that are more progressive than Russia's. No other large country can show an entire

State school system which embodies as many progressive elements as does that of Russia.

On the other hand, Russia's centralization of education, even though it may be a temporarily necessary expedient, is in the long run a hindrance to progress. Her failure to recognize individual differences in children's intelligence is stupid. Her thrusting of communism and materialism down the throats of her children seems to some of us criminal. It is true, of course, that all countries have to a greater or lesser degree been similarly culpable. American schools try to give children reverence for the Constitution and our form of government. English children must all sing "God Save the King," and attend prayers in school. Children in all capitalistic countries are taught to respect private property. Yes, we indoctrinate our children with our kind of civilization as truly, even if not as ardently and efficiently, as does Russia. But the New Education bids us to desist from such propaganda and to give the children training in seeing both sides of each question, in thinking for themselves.

The very one-sidedness of education in Russia, however, has one great advantage. The people take their schools in grim earnest. In America, and in Europe, I believe, schools are regarded rather casually by the man in the street or the legislator in parliament. (Has the Fisher Act come into full force in England yet?) The making of the schools footballs of personal politics, as happens in some of our American cities, the ignoring of the schools by parliaments or legislatures, cannot happen in Russia.

Russia sees in its schools its own future. On the success or failure of its educational system depends the success or failure of communism and the Soviet form of government. This Russia realizes poignantly. I wonder when the other nations of the world will realize equally profoundly the fact that in the world's state schools the world's future is being determined?

The First Experimental Station on Public Education of the People's Commissariat of Education, U.S.S.R.

By S. Shatzky

Aims

THE aim of the First Experimental Station is to assist in the cultural reconstruction of the Republic by means of organising various experiments and investigations connected with cultural and educational development. It seeks (1) to raise the level of "*material*" conditions by the development of technique and the general improvement of living conditions; (2) to raise the level of "*spiritual*" culture through the intellectual and æsthetic education of the people; (3) to develop "*social*" culture through self-activity and co-operation of the people. In actual fact the Station has come more and more to concentrate on the practical problems of public education.

History

Briefly summarised, the growth of the Experimental Station has been as follows: In 1904 new educational principles, coming from American settlements, penetrated into Moscow. These principles were based upon the idea of social reform through education. Educational workers were to dwell among the poorest of the people and by their immediate influence develop in the people initiative, self-activity and co-operation. Accordingly a group of pedagogues, under the guidance of A. Zelenko, L. Schleger and myself, set to work in 1905. In 1906 we brought into being "The First Moscow Settlement." The work began with the organisation of children's groups and clubs. In 1906 these clubs included 150 children, a kindergarten was opened and a playground for children. In the autumn of 1906 the Moscow Settlement was transferred to new premises which included workshops for joinery, locksmithing and sewing. The clubs now included 450 children. An experimental

school was started. All this work had nothing to do with State education and was naturally suspected by the authorities. The Settlement was under police surveillance and in 1907 I and others were arrested. The Settlement was ordered to cease work but we did not despair. In 1909 we started again under a new name, "Children's Work and Rest." In 1911, after I had been abroad, the work was removed to the country, to the district of Kaluga, and a children's colony was founded with the motto, "The Children are the Workers of the Future." This colony is still active.

The development of the work required a new type of teacher, and in 1916 at the Shaniawsky University of Moscow special courses were planned to train students in practical pedagogy.

Wider fields for experiment were continually sought, but expansion had to wait until after the Revolution when the People's Commissariat of Education gave its support to what was now re-named the "First Experimental Station on Public Education." The results of our experiments in the local stations now contribute material useful to the Commissariat in formulating its educational system for the whole country.

The work with its new status took a new direction in that it ceased to fight against the influence of the "street" in connection with the children, but instead adopted the policy of working hand in hand with the population so that the environment of the children became their first school and the population their first teachers.

Activities

The work of the Station is divided into *Practice*—pedagogical work with children of different ages, such work being closely connected with social work;

Courses—for teachers based on practical study; *Investigation*—analysis of experiments performed, theoretic study of environment and the psychology of children, *Propaganda*—among the masses of the population and teachers

Work in the Country

The experimental field embraces in Kaluga a district of 163 square versts, including 35 villages, all of which come under the pedagogical leadership of the Station. The living conditions of the district are at a low level of rural economy. There is a small domestic weaving industry. There are now 13 first grade schools, two second grade schools and seven kindergartens. All these institutions have as a centre a settlement named "Cheery Life." The schools include almost all the children of the district. Thirty-four teachers and 617 children are working in these schools. Their material equipment does not differ much from ordinary village schools, it not being the aim of the Station to serve as "model" schools but rather to organise the work so that it is suited to the conditions of a village and to improve these conditions gradually with the co-operation of the teachers and the people themselves. The general scheme of education is the same for all the village schools though there are local variations. The Complex method brings the children into contact with local conditions and gives them an incentive to improve those conditions. Groups of schools unite for such activities as singing, games, exhibitions, excursions, etc., and there are various children's organisations which unite all the schools of the Station.

The work in school seeks to organise the child's life beyond school boundaries. While at school the children do not work for production, but at home from the earliest ages they take part in agricultural and domestic industrial labour (which for this district is weaving). The school, therefore, does not increase the child's labour tasks but seeks to organise that work in the home. Local industrial economy holds an important place in

school studies; it leads the child to understand his environment and to assist in its improvement

Cheery Life

The colony "Cheery Life" has existed since 1911. It has a nine-years' school course with a school building housing 130 pupils, 80 of which are boarders, and 22 teachers. It is the centre of the study of educational method in the Station. The activities of the Colony are based on work. "Children's Work as the Basis of Social Work" is its motto. The Colony has a farm and various workshops in which the children spend part of their time.

Kindergartens (7 with 152 children) are run in connection with the schools, but during the summer the Station opens other homes and playgrounds where the parents, busy in the fields, can leave their children.

Work with the Population

Work with the adults is carried on side by side with the education of the children. All the educational workers take part in an effort to improve local living conditions and to encourage co-operation. On the other hand, the adults are called in to assist with the education of the children. Activities include the building up of libraries, clubs for youth, theatrical and choral circles, lectures, parties, concerts, etc., reading centres and evening lessons for the peasants, conferences of peasant women and parents' meetings, participation of the teachers in the village meetings at which the people assemble to settle questions concerning the village.

Training Courses for Teachers

There are regular training courses in which the various problems confronting the Station are worked out and analysed. All the practical workers of the Station spend two days each month at the Kaluga Section Centre and work there according to a curriculum which covers one year. The practical workers bring to the courses the results of their experiences, and these

are taken up and discussed collectively with the aid of the leaders. In these courses the teachers are given new problems to work out in their schools, and on these they eventually make a report.

In the Kaluga Section Centre there are supplementary institutions doing research work; there is a permanent exhibition showing the results of experiments and research work of the children, a school library, etc.

Work in Town

The Moscow Section—In Moscow the Experimental Station has no group of organisations, but its educational work is centred in two activities, the Central Kindergarten and the First Work-School which are working in the district that formerly was included in the "Children's Work and Rest."

The Central Kindergarten was opened by the Station in 1922, and now has 70 children and 10 workers including a doctor and a dentist. Here kindergarten problems are being studied, such as the establishment of norms of work, the study of the kindergarten child in relation to city life, etc. Mothers are consulted, exhibitions arranged, and much propaganda for kindergartens undertaken.

In the First Work School, founded in 1918, and becoming part of the First Experimental Station in 1919, there are 192 pupils and 21 teachers. The characteristic features of the school are (1) to adapt to its use local materials and conditions, as for example in the preparation of the general curriculum and the various phases of individual occupation; (2) the use of the research method; (3) self-service kitchen to teach the children social habits; (4) the organisa-

tion of labour in workshops. The workshops serve for education and for production, and include woodwork, mechanics, book-binding, etc. Again, the parents and the people of the district are brought into co-operation with the school and share some of its work.

The Moscow Centre is undertaking research work in co-operation with its practical workers in the educational field. It is studying the characteristics peculiar to different ages of children, methods of work, language, reading, writing, drawing, etc. At the Centre is an educational exhibit which serves to illustrate both the practical and the research work of the Station. There is a department for educational materials and a pedagogical library with a foreign section. This library serves all the members of the Station.

Normal School (or Teachers' Training).

—The courses last two years and are based on former experimental courses. There are 110 pupils and 25 teachers.

During the year 1925-26 the Station organised 152 excursions in 9 months with 4,761 persons in addition to 205 single visits, many visitors coming from abroad.

The Station serves not only to unite different kinds of social and educational institutions (kindergarten, primary school, professional and political education, reading rooms, libraries, clubs, etc.), but in addition it is extending its field and directing its forces towards constructive cultural work with the community based on a study of environment and by means of co-ordination with various Soviet organisations.

(The original article has been considerably cut down by the sub-editor owing to lack of space for a full report.)

"No conqueror can make the multitude different from what it is; no statesman can carry the world affairs beyond the ideas and capacities of the generation of adults with which he deals; but teachers—I use the word in the widest sense—can do more than either conqueror or statesman; they can create a new vision and liberate the latent powers of our kind."—H. G. WELLS.

The Basic Principles of Soviet Pedagogy

By Prof. A. Pinkevitch

(President, Second Moscow State University)

Soviet pedagogy cannot be understood by those who start from the usual presuppositions of West European or American pedagogy, nor can it be derived from this latter by any partial modification or substitution. Soviet education is entirely dominated by the Marxist conception of the universe and in all its parts it reflects the social organisation of Soviet lands. Therefore it is impossible to accept or reject it in part. The fundamental philosophy must be accepted or rejected and with it the whole educational aim.

Soviet pedagogy is primarily that of work and workers. The "work" is not merely one of the forms of human activity but the productive, socially indispensable work of Marxian theory. At the same time it is the pedagogy of workers. It does not claim to be an education for humanity in general, it is frankly and openly a class pedagogy. It definitely denies the possibility of creating a non-class pedagogy under class conditions and affirms that under such conditions all talk of general culture and absence of class distinctions is either illusion or hypocrisy.

For the worker classes of modern Russia the question of labour education is one of cardinal importance.

Labour in the USSR wages desperate struggle against the front which opposes labour interests.

The "fathers and mothers in October" (i.e. the October Revolution) wish their children to continue the struggle for labour ideals—that is the struggle for Socialism and Communism. Our country has made the first step along the road of constructive Socialism, and it is necessary to prepare both youth and adult for the continuation of this construction.

The aim of education, which is anything but clear and decided for many European and American teachers, stands out in Soviet pedagogy in entire clarity. It may be briefly formulated thus:—"To promote the all-round development of an individual who shall be healthy, strong, active, courageous, independent in thought and action, with a many-sided culture; an efficient person striving for the interest of the working class, which is ultimately for the interest of the whole of humanity." In Soviet lands this class education is now the education of 99 per cent of the population and it is directed towards a new humanity.

Out of this general foundation there rise all the main principles of Soviet education—

- (a) Education for Collectivism
- (b) Self-activity
- (c) Materialism and secularism.
- (d) Central position of technical work (in various forms).
- (e) Close connection between education and the existing life of labour (agricultural, industrial and cultural)
- (f) The organisation of means corresponding to aim.
- (g) Similar objectives for men and women—co-education for children and adults.
- (h) National culture developed as part of world culture.

A few of these points may be amplified.

(a) **Collectivism** in the form of self-government is strongly developed in our schools and in the organisations of Pioneers and Young Communists. Children live and develop freely but in an atmosphere of collectivism, they absorb the spirit and aim of the worker class from their neighbour citizens. In the general direction of a pupil's life none of the Youth organisations makes use of special rules. Authority rests on the obligation of a citizen towards his (the child's) "Collective"—nothing further. The elements of self-government are found in all children's organisations, even the kindergarten.

(b) **Activity** results from the fact that our children live and learn in an atmosphere of struggle. The principle of activity dominates all methods of learning, from the Dalton Plan (with its Soviet modifications) and the Complex system to the emphatically practical research method. But this activity does not end in the school life. One of the most popular mottoes of our schools is for "socially useful works" in their districts. All school organisations ought to contribute towards the improvement of the life of labour in their district.

(c) Our education is **materialist** in the Marxian sense. It clears away all that is mystical or religious in the approach to life's phenomena and requires a logical approach which demands a synthetic study of all movement and change and a recognition of interconnection and interdependence. Hence, one of our school principles is the "Complex synthesis."

(d) **Technical education** is polytechnic and not monoteknic. A person well developed all round ought to understand all sides of labour activity and not be confined to a narrow one-sided vocationalism. The realisation of this is still far off, for our poverty prevents us from providing all schools with many different workshops, without which polytechnical work is a castle in the air.

(e) **Interconnection between school and life.** The Soviet school does not tear children from the outer world. The training of efficient builders of the Socialist state necessitates conversancy with everything relevant to its interests.

Children as well as adults respond to the great "political days." In all types of schools the progress and the problems of agriculture and culture are carefully studied. The school has to feel itself a part of life in its fulness and not merely of academic importance.

The greatest attention is paid to **adult education**. Connected with this is the special development of pedagogical science working through all that can organise and influence thought,—schools, libraries, theatres, newspapers, cinema, etc.

Soviet lands have liberated women, and the nationalities oppressed by the Tsarist regime. Therefore the educational system finds special importance in **Co-education** and in the teaching of **native**

These are a few of the principles of our philosophy of education. They derive directly from the hypothesis of the Soviet State. Soviet education is the education of a working class struggling with all its might to build the Socialist Society.

(Translated from the Russian by V. A. Hyett)

Education in the Russian Socialist Federation of Soviet Republics

By Mme. Rojdestvenskaya

(This article was written at the request of A. Podzemsky, Head of the Information Bureau of the People's Commissariat of Education, and has been translated from the Russian)

MARXISM is a practical philosophy: it changes the substance of human labour itself. Applied to education it involves the acquirement of knowledge through the practical experience of living in one's own environment. On this idea Soviet education is largely based. The programme of the People's Commissariat of Education takes into consideration the condition of the child's mind, its gradual development, and also the development of labour itself from its simplest forms to modern conditions. The programme seeks to arrange a synthesis of the study of the history of labour, of human society, and of Nature from the most elementary to the most complex forms.

Pre-school education is considered essential, for it is recognised that in the early years the foundations of all future education are laid.

The System of People's Education in the R.S.F.S.R.

The following are the bases of the People's Education:—

(A) The combination of general education with productive work and the participation in social-political life.

(B) The adaptation of the system to the conditions of labour and life of those workers whom it serves and to the special requirements of the district where it is in use. "A Unified School" means a unity of the principles on which it is built; it certainly does not mean a "clipping" of all the schools in the country to the same model without taking into consideration the composition of pupils and the locality.

(C) The inducement of the workers and the pupils themselves to take part in the practical building up of the people's

education. The Trade Unions, the Union of Communist Youth and Pioneers, are of great importance in this respect.

(D) The establishment of continuity and inter-dependence between different types of schools

The basis of the system of the people's education in the R.S.F.S.R. lies in the unified work school with a nine-years' course of training. In general practice, in the present transitory period, a seven-years' course is more usual. It consists of four years of elementary and three years of secondary schooling. A considerable number of schools even now develop into a nine-years' course by the addition, in schools of the second degree, of an 8th and 9th year. The country schools of the second degree are given a special trend which forms them into schools of Peasant Youth. In purely industrial districts the schools of the second degree are being reorganized into factory or works schools of seven years. The basis of the Unified Work School is pre-school education, organized through kindergartens, play-grounds, and children's homes. As extensions of the elementary and secondary schools are the professional schools; as extensions of the elementary—the factory schools; as extensions of the seven-years' schools—the professional technical schools.

Programmes (or Curricula) of the State Scientific Council

These are the result of the collective work of the advanced section of the teachers. The S.S.C. considers that in the programmes of the elementary and secondary schools human labour and its organization—economics—must hold the

central position. From the viewpoint of the struggle of man against nature, of his conquest of her riches and forces, these latter must be studied in the schools. On the other hand, economics must serve as basis for the study of human society.

The programmes of the S.S.C. endeavour to give all the schools material in a way that links them with actual life. They do not offer the study of isolated phenomena divorced from practical experience.

The concrete quality of a child's thinking from 8-12, *i.e.*, until the period of puberty, makes it necessary to emphasise, especially in the elementary school, the local concrete material and to place present-day activity in the centre of study, using remote (in time and space) life as a comparison only and for a deepening of the understanding of the surrounding life. The field of observation and study is enlarged gradually. Local survey, in its wider aspect, has an important place in the elementary school.

The age of 8-12 is also characterised by natural interests centred on the social instincts and the instinct to investigate. This leads to the necessity of inculcating at that age the habits of collective work. It is necessary to give to children the emotional experiences which feed the social instinct, to organise the children's self-government according to our idea of Soviet self-government.

The endeavour at the age of puberty to understand the laws behind phenomena makes it necessary in the secondary schools (age 12-15) to pay special attention to the presentation of the phenomena of life in their development, and to the introduction of the theory of evolution and of history. On the other hand, in this period comes a desire for a more profound study of phenomena. In the secondary school, therefore, "subjects" are introduced, but special attention is given to connecting the material of different subjects.

The S.S.C. programmes are intended to be subjected to modification in different localities. They require individual treat-

ment, adaptation to local conditions, to national peculiarities, to economic forms and to the history of the districts.

The material of the programmes is built in such a way that children from the very beginning learn to use their acquired knowledge and skill for the purpose of the **betterment of life and its reorganization.**

The old text-books were permeated by a moral alien to the working class; new text-books must be created. Yet to create new text-books we must possess firmly established programmes that have been tested in life. New books must be adapted to the new child, to new methods of teaching, as well as to the new collective work of the children.

General Elementary Education

The reform which aims at introducing general education into a country covering one-sixth of the globe, with extremely varied nationalities—where illiteracy reaches 90-95 per cent—is naturally a difficult one. And what Tsarist Russia tried to approach for years in peaceful and stable conditions, Soviet Russia had to accomplish in a few years. In its decree on the Unified Work School, published on October 16th, 1918, the Soviet Government declared general education compulsory. On November 1st, 1918, the Collegiate of the Commissariat of Education formed a "Commission for the study of the introduction of general education in Russia." The work of this Commission was summarized at the "First All-Russia Conference in 1919," and the primary results of this work were brought into the fundamental survey of People's Education in 1920. The hard conditions of 1920, when civil war was at its highest, especially when the consequences of the economic collapse began to tell, were certainly not beneficial to wide cultural work. And only in 1922 the People's Commissariat of Public Education raised the question of the mass school, and brought forward again the question of general education throughout the country.

The Condition of Elementary Education

The October Revolution, as is known, created an extraordinary activity of the working masses, and one of the indications of this activity was the unprecedented demand for the Elementary School.

We must state with great satisfaction that the Soviet country, which has just recovered from the results of the civil war and economic devastation, has been able to increase the number of elementary schools by 30.9 per cent.

In the towns the stage has already been reached when the four-years' elementary school does not satisfy the population, and when the development of the elementary education moves upward towards the schools of a higher type, *i.e.*, seven-years' schools. Even in the most remote and backward villages, situated far away from the cultural centres, the schools of 1925-26 vary considerably from the schools of 1922-23. It is true that we have not many schools which are satisfactorily connected with the life of the district and which take into consideration its economic and cultural need; but what we have reached is that all the schools, without exception, receive their material from the new text-books, from their environment, and that they are gradually raising the standard of literacy, and finally that they are using increasingly (by the active methods of teaching) the pupils' knowledge of their every-day life.

Education among National Minorities*

Our national policy recognizes the great importance of the cultural and economic growth of our people.

A great deal has been done by the Soviet for the cultural growth of different nationalities, particularly for those which are culturally backward. To some of these education has been opened for the

first time. The creation of the national text-book is proceeding rapidly. For the first time in history the different nationalities have been able to receive secondary and university education in their own languages. National schools, workers' faculties, technical schools, have been created for the different nationalities. A workers' faculty has been opened for the population which inhabits our most remote forests and marshes, and which, under the Tsarist regime, was destined to degeneration and doom.

The elementary schools of the national minorities provide for 70-80 per cent of their populations. The development of the secondary schools is also clearly noticeable.

The educational programmes of the S S C. are followed in the schools of the national minorities, but they vary considerably according to different nationalities. The western nationalities follow the programmes as drawn for the Russian schools, also some Finns' (Tchuvashi and Mordva) schools. The eastern and the most backward nationalities so far only use them formally.

Schools of a Higher Type

There is a great demand in Russia for the higher type of school. Everywhere we see a lively movement amongst parents, not only civil servants and intellectuals, but also among the workers and peasantry, for advanced schools. At present there are 18,000 secondary schools with the seven-years' course and 900 with the nine-years' course. We are carrying out a reform in the two last years of the nine years of the secondary school so that, while preparation for the university is continued, practical courses are given of vocational value; thus pupils who do not go to the universities have some definite vocational qualification on leaving school.

Factory and Works Schools

The Factory and Works Schools, as far as they must prepare qualified workers, should accept only children who have

* The Soviet Union comprises six allied Republics (the Russian Soviet Federation, Ukraine, White Russia, Trans-Caucasian Federation, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan). In addition, under the Soviet Federation there are 11 federal parts (autonomous republics) and 12 territories not fully autonomous.—Ed.

finished the seven-years' school. We are trying now to introduce in the factory and works districts a corresponding type of the seven-years' school, which shall associate definitely with the industry of the district. But meanwhile we have many in the factory and works schools who have not finished the seven-years' schools.

Schools of the Peasant Youth

The schools of the Peasant Youth are a very good type of school, in some degree parallel with the Factory and Works schools. These can be entered after the four-years' elementary course, and thus include Peasant Youth in the real sense of the word. These schools are interesting particularly because they aim at the education of peasants, with a considerable bias towards co-operation. It has been found that the youths that attend these schools and acquire there practical knowledge (the instruction is carried out

in a most practical way, near to the land and near to the peasants' farming) show an extraordinary activity. As soon as they learn they begin to teach the surrounding population. The standard of the peasants' farming is so low that any pupil that rises above it seems to be the messenger of higher culture. This is quite a new type of peasant "intelligenza" which does not turn its back on the village but finds in it most promising prospects in the domains of culture and politics, as well as in the agricultural and economic life. The idea of these schools is quite new: it is only of three years' standing, but there already 620 schools with 64,000 pupils. We must not forget that these schools develop amid conditions of extreme poverty. The peasants' machinery is exceedingly poor, but the schools of the Peasant Youth are using all their wisdom and all their experience in order to help the peasant population.

EXTRA-MURAL RURAL EDUCATION

No story of any educational movement in Soviet Russia is complete if it stops with the schools. Very important is the educational work carried on directly by the Red Army; by the Trades Unions and industrial *artels* (co-operatives); by the co-operatives; in peasant homes (in the cities); in the village Soviets; and by itinerant libraries, moving pictures, peasant theatres, radio. Much of this extra-mural education functions through the *Isba-Chitalnya*. The *Isba* is the village reading-room, equipped with games and journals, the concentration point for local cultural forces. Here teachers, agronomists, physicians, lawyers, representatives of local organizations, may get a hearing or give an answer to a demand. Here, also, may be located Liquidation of Illiteracy circles and other classes.

The new film called *Village Policy* is a splendid illustration of one phase of this extra-mural adult education. Eisenstein, the creator of the film *Potemkin*, produced it for the tenth anniversary of the Re-

public (November, 1927) to compel the peasant population to realize their knowledge, their power; to show them that they are now beginning to think scientifically; that they are now beginning to work co-operatively; that now their heavy burdens can and do rest on powerful machines of many kinds; to demonstrate the wisdom of manure, of deep tillage, of heated cattle-sheds, of egg-laying contests, of thoroughbred stock, of the separator, of the great grain enterprises in Siberia, soon to supply the whole Union with grain. He says of it: "This is the first comprehensive picture based on agriculture and peasant life. It marks an attempt to present the grey, everyday side of that life in an interesting way; to lend meaning to these problems of colossal importance from a political and social point of view.

"To present pictures of agricultural character is not enough. The audience must be thoroughly aroused and faced with actual problems, made to participate in the solution presented."

LUCY WILSON.

An English Teacher in Russia

By V. A. Hyett (*Hon. Sch. Mod. Hist., Oxford*)

(*King Alfred School, London*)

THE Union of Socialist Soviet Republics has become such a familiar battleground for the theories of Westerners with only the vaguest knowledge of things Slavonic, that any first-hand evidence on the subject is usually suspect as poisoned at its source. But I have found it possible to spend four and a half months in Russia without coming back an ardent supporter or a determined opponent of revolution *qua* revolution—my only conviction being that it is impossible to make ethical generalizations on the subject.

The U.S.S.R. does, however, provide most interesting material for study of the results of social upheaval and spontaneous popular developments, and because, as a student of education, I felt most competent to judge of the results in that department of life, I spent the better part of my time in Russia in the summer of 1926 in schools and amongst teachers.

The general impression that remains is perhaps an acute *consciousness* of upheaval, an atmosphere of vigour and tension, the intense aliveness to facts of a people who have seen their whole world reconstructed in the space of a few years, on the one hand a disgruntled sense of loss and uncertainty, and on the other an unbounded optimism in the disciples for the future of a faith that the new world has begun here and now.

Universal Education

All this is reflected in the educational system, which forms a very important side of the New Russia. For the upheaval has thrown up what that country has never had before—a governing body which has a live belief in the value and necessity of universal education. Although financial limitations have impeded its full realization, the scheme which has been evolved provides not only equal educational possibilities for all town

children and increasing facilities in the country, but also for a substantial amount of adult education amongst the largely illiterate population.

Pre-School Education

The system itself is framed principally on western models. There is a big scheme for Pre-school education which has not yet advanced very far in practice. It can be seen at work in a limited number of day nursery institutions in connection with factories, and in the State Children's Homes, some of which are for children under eight. These are singularly free from the "institution spirit" which is the curse of so many orphanages in England, but I suspect that to be due more to the Slavonic temperament than to Communist theory. Self-activity is the rule everywhere. Even the Pre-school children do the work of house and garden—always in that leisurely and spasmodic manner which is natural to children. There is no hint of school, except perhaps in the "biological laboratory," which is a conspicuous feature of all Soviet schools. Here the children keep all sorts of living specimens of animal and vegetable nature. Once where the smell of the rabbits and rats was appalling I enquired why they were not kept in the garden, and was informed that as no one but the children attended to them and they could not lift the hutches, it would be impossible to bring them in at night, which would be necessary. I felt that this was typical of the amount of real responsibility which rested on the children.

Unified School

The "Unified Labour School" is provided for all children between the ages of 8 and 17. No private schools are allowed. Co-education being practically unknown when the Revolutionary Govern-

ment came into power, they promptly divided up the big boys' and girls' schools which existed in the towns (and their staffs) and put half of each together. This was one of those cataclysmic breaks with the past which Communist policy advocates. Needless to say it involved a situation of some tension for a while. But now that eight years have elapsed, out of the numbers of teachers with whom I talked I only discovered one who disliked co-education. It is undoubtedly in harmony with the spirit of the country where no differentiation of sex is apparent in any occupation.

I was interested to watch the working of the single school for all classes. Having been told by a German teacher recently that the result of the abolition of "class" schools simply meant that children fell into cliques in the single schools, I was prepared to see something of the same kind. But I neither saw any signs of it nor did any of the teachers whom I questioned admit the difficulty. Children are classified as coming from "proletariat" or "professional" homes, as the Heads nearly always informed me of the percentage of each in their school, but there the distinction ends. In eight years the sense of the dignity of labour has become such a vital part of the new Russia that it has entirely permeated the schools, and no one is ashamed of being a worker's child or of associating with him.

The school is divided into two grades roughly corresponding to our elementary and secondary divisions. In the first grade nothing is taught as a "subject," but all types of mental activity are centred round a single theme for a considerable length of time. This is the "Complex" Method, somewhat similar to the American "Project." In the second grade there is a curriculum imposed by the Commissariat of Education on all schools, but variety of methods and experiments is encouraged within these limits. In Leningrad a large number of the best schools work on Dalton lines. As I had worked on a similar method for six years I was much

interested in the various modifications of the Plan which I saw being carried out. I attended a large conference of teachers who worked on this method, and was much impressed (as always at teachers' assemblies) by the remarkable professional enthusiasm.

Curriculum

The distinctive feature of the curriculum is the predominance of science. Biology, physics, chemistry, physiology and often botany, zoology and geology as well, come into the four-years' course. Geography is taken practically entirely from the economic side, and history of culture on Marxian lines usually deals only in very large outlines with the period before the Industrial Revolution. This is, of course, a natural reaction from the imperialist type of history which was formerly in vogue, but like much new teaching it suffers from the superficiality of big generalizations—unsuitable food for young intelligences. In these ways the curriculum reflects the prevailing philosophy, but considerable latitude is allowed in treatment to non-Communist teachers. This I realized when I found in one of the largest Leningrad schools that the teacher of Russian had spent the whole year with the top form in a detailed study of Tolstoi's works and philosophy, for which orthodox Communism would have very little use.

Self-Activity and Collective Methods

Methods of work all reflect the spirit of self-activity, and this to a large extent is directed towards collective undertakings. In the Dalton schools especially much is done by small groups. An assignment often involves the making of a wall diagram from data obtained from various sources, and this is worked out collectively. Diagrammatic work is very popular since so much propaganda is done among the semi-literate population by such posters. At the end of the school year every school has an exhibition of its year's work which is open to the public, and the diagrams which I saw adorning all the classroom walls are intended for the instruction of the adult population

who see them, as well as for that of the children who make them.

To train the children in collective methods is one of the first aims of the Communists. In one school there were many different types of industrial workshops, and also a factory attached where older pupils spent some hours every week in mass production of school furniture. Here the Head, an enthusiastic Communist, as he showed me with pride a corporate product of the bookbinding workshop, remarked with emphasis: "No child must ever say, 'This is *my* work'" —a code which might lie somewhat heavily perhaps on youthful creative ardour.

Excursions, Museums

There is a very definite effort to link on the school activities to the larger community, apart from these schools with an industrial bias. Excursions form a very important item in the time-table, and it is from these that most of the material for themes in the Complex plan is drawn. They include visits to all the most important centres of civic enterprise as well as to the public museums. The latter are a most remarkable feature of the new Russia, since all the former nobles' palaces have been requisitioned for this purpose, and in these are collected not only exhibitions of every branch of art and science, but also material for instruction in many subjects of social importance, such as health, maternity, child-life, etc. In all these there are competent guides to take parties round, and I never visited a museum without meeting many of these groups, organised either by schools or trade unions. At one school I was told that each child went on an average of fifteen excursions in the year. At another I saw a mass of most interesting material collected by the children during a school visit to the arctic region of Murmansk—a distance of about 700 miles from Leningrad.

Country Farms and Clubs

Many schools have country farms where some of the children spend the three months' summer holiday. These are made

centres of agricultural research and peasant education. Schools without farms usually have camps. At one of these I saw a boy of about fourteen looking after a group of a dozen toddlers whose mothers were working in the fields. The interesting group of schools and colony run by Shatsky in the Kaluga Government, which is one of the most famous of the organisations under the special department for Experimental Schools, aims at making the village school the central factor in village life.

The political ferment of the country is of course reflected in the schools, with more or less intensity according to the number of members of "the Party" on the staff. Every school must have its clubroom for Young Communists and Pioneers—the junior organizations of the party—the latter closely resembling scouts in their type of activity. Membership of these is quite voluntary and usually only includes a minority of the pupils. Every school has also its "Lenin Corner," where the Lenin cult is vigorously nurtured, but, to judge from the children's contributions to this shrine, it is a very real and spontaneous devotion and (as many people have already pointed out) replaces the religious focus of hero-worship which has been abolished from Soviet schools. One delightful feature of the clubrooms—which appears also in factories and other institutions—is the Wall Newspaper, which records the most important current events and developments. It provides scope for much fertility of invention in the way of design and illustration, as well as method and discrimination in the choice of subject-matter.

Art

The natural bent of the Slav for vigorous decorative art is visible on every wall of the school in posters, banners and boldly lettered mottoes. The visual appeal is everywhere in evidence. Although the arts are not given a large place in the curriculum it is obvious that neither music, drawing nor drama is in danger of being left out of Russian life.

The chief defect of the curriculum seemed to me that of Continental education in general—the tendency to overfill the children's time, producing a condition of overstrain and excitement. The school hours are normally from 9.30 till 3 or 4 (the most usual dinner-hour—if any hour can be called usual in a country which has no meal-times), with a midday break. But most schools were open all the evening for Clubs and Library, and I knew at least one Russian boy who thought nothing of sitting up all night to finish his school work. The cult of "Physkultur" is being pushed by health propaganda and open-air sports are much advocated, but from what I saw I should say it was a very new feature and had not yet advanced very far in the ordinary school regime, although the summer camp movement is more wide-spread than with us in England.

Self-Government

In government the school is a miniature reproduction of the State. It is a network of Soviets and Committees elected or appointed by groups or forms with a Central Executive responsible to the general assembly. Parents are represented in a Parents' Soviet. Two things struck me particularly in this self-government system, which I found in every school I visited. One is that every child is drawn into some position of responsibility and that it was not only the abler ones who were members of the committees. There were various devices for this, but the most common was that the group unit was divided up into sections, each of which acted as a committee for some purpose (*e.g.*, sanitary, sport, library, etc.) for a limited period, and then interchanged with the others. Each of these had a representative on the form or group Soviet.

The other remarkable feature was the very real responsibility which rested on the children. In one school I attended a meeting of the top form of which a boy I had formerly taught in England was a member. The business of the meeting was to give recommendations to the

University to those pupils who in the judgment of the form deserved it. Entrance to the University was not possible without this. The staff and some parents were also present and contributed to the discussion. The extremely serious way in which the members debated every case and the vigour and fluency with which they spoke and held their own when points of dispute arose between them and the staff was really admirable; it was obvious that they fully realized how much depended on their decision.

The general free-and-easiness noticeable in the school regime, the friendliness and lack of formality in relations between staff and children, and the absence of any sort of rigidity in discipline is probably largely Slavonic, since I noticed the same spirit in all institutions and offices. But revolutionary principles are probably responsible for a strong sense of the rights of the young, and the children obviously feel the schools are *theirs*—as well as other public places. One of the sights that struck me on my first morning in Russia when I visited the Leningrad Education Office was a number of barefooted children playing about on the stairs of that palatial building, serenely conscious that they had a perfect right to be there and that no one would think of turning them out. Incidentally, one of the things which I, as a Londoner, most envied the Russian towns, was the way in which every open space (formerly the nobles' private gardens) was open to the public at all hours and full of children after school was over.

There seemed singularly little repression of the young by adults, either at home or at school, which probably accounts for the marked absence of self-consciousness. Very frequently teachers questioning me about English education asked whether it was really true that in England corporal punishment was still in vogue, since it seemed to them such an extraordinary and unaccountable thing in a civilised country that they could not believe it. When it came to apologizing for our five-hundred-year-old traditions I found I often envied them their "clean sweep."

But I often heard teachers lament the extreme rapidity of the recent changes. There seems quite a real danger in this enthusiasm for new ideas and methods, in that experiment may succeed experiment so fast that the regime may be too restless and over-stimulating for satisfactory mental development. I have certainly never encountered a professional enthusiasm to equal that of Russian teachers, and of these the large majority with whom I came in contact were not Communists. The prevailing point of view appeared to be that under the old regime all educational advance and experiment were suppressed from above, whereas now it was encouraged. This enthusiasm was all the more remarkable in that it co-existed with the most deplorable economic conditions. Teachers' salaries range from less than £4 a month in the country to £5 or £6 in the towns. It is only fair to add that there are ameliorating circumstances, for rents are paid in proportion to income, and there are substantial augmentations to income for all Soviet employees in the way of public benefits, such as reduced fares, free excursions and lectures, rest homes and holiday tours. I went with one of these last to the Caucasus and found it extraordinarily cheap and well managed.

I have written mainly of town schools because it was in these that I spent most of my time, but it is of course important to remember that nearly 90 per cent of the population is rural. The present situation under which a highly industrialised westernised nucleus is superimposing its methods of organization and education on this extremely primitive mass of people is full of interest for the future. Sometimes when I heard Communist enthusiasm for "mass

production," "big industry," "electrification," I began to be afraid for the Americanized peasant of the future. But when one realises the poverty and backwardness of material conditions one must recognise the force of the Marxian appeal and admit economic development to be the immediate necessity. The present Government is aiming primarily at making good on the economic side. At the same time the Communist "aristocracy" of the present regime is doing its best to promote the education of the peasantry in every part of the Union. In Georgia and other parts of Trans-Caucasia I stayed in schools (which in the holidays are turned into excursion hostels) and saw signs of the same educational enthusiasm as in Great Russia, though the teachers have to face great difficulties in view of the fact that 60 different languages are spoken in the Caucasus, and even in the small places there are representatives of many races in the schools.

If the financial problems of the country are successfully tackled and prosperity grows, the preponderating peasant element will come to its own and make its voice heard in the Soviets. It seems probable that when this day comes it will modify the existing system to suit its special needs in the different parts of the Union. In this way there may arise a civilization which combines the high productive capacity of the West with the beauty and simplicity which mark all primitive agricultural communities, and the world may see—what it has never yet seen—a rise in the standard of living without the deterioration of ethical and æsthetic standards which results when material progress is bought at the price of exploitation.

Our Illustrations

For the illustrations in this number we are indebted to Dr Lucy Wilson, Dr Carleton Washburne, the U.S.S.R. Society of Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (London), and others. The cover illustration was selected from Dr. Washburne's collection.

Ten Years of Pre-School Work in Soviet Russia

By Vera Fediaevsky

[The writer is a teacher of long standing, now lecturing on Pre-school work in the Pedagogical Technicum (Training College), Moscow.]

BEFORE the Revolution there were only private kindergartens in Russia. A very small number of public kindergartens in Moscow and Leningrad were an exception.

With the advent of the Revolution the kindergarten in Russia began to occupy a new place. Pre-school education was recognized to be an institution of State importance and was included in the work of the Commissariat of Public Education. The aim in view was to make the kindergarten education compulsory for all.

The network of kindergartens began to spread. The number of kindergartens attained its maximum in 1922. But, on the one hand, the maintenance of a great number of Pre-school institutions proved to be too great a burden for the State; and on the other hand, the number of teachers, properly trained for the work, was insufficient. Therefore the number of Pre-school institutions was greatly reduced. But the remaining kindergartens were given improved hygienic and pedagogical conditions. Beginning with 1925 the network of kindergartens began to spread anew.

There are at present in Russia (U.S.S.R.) 1,437 kindergartens; 72,478 children of pre-school age are served by them. This is about one per cent. It is to be noted that the age of the children in kindergartens in Soviet Russia is from three to seven years. The kindergarten has usually three groups of 20-25 children each.

Kindergartens have three sources of maintenance: (1) The local fund; (2) funds of certain organizations: co-operative stores, committee of mutual assistance, professional unions, etc.; (3) the population and parents furnish some additional means. In cities, the factory with which a kindergarten is connected, often takes a large share in the maintenance.

Factory Kindergartens in Towns

The kindergartens in towns are organized especially for the use of the workers' children. Therefore they are often distributed on the outskirts of the cities where manufacturing plants and workshops are located. Workers' children require the use of a kindergarten during the entire day and they stay the whole of the day from seven or eight o'clock in the morning until five or six o'clock in the evening. Thus they have their breakfast and their dinner, also their rest period and everyday walk in the kindergarten. The workers also require the use of a kindergarten during the entire year and in Russia it functions all the year round. In summer kindergartens are taken out of town, where children can enjoy air, sun, bathing and games. The factory often supports the summer colonies of the kindergarten.

There generally exists a connection between the factory and the factory kindergarten. Not only does the factory support the latter financially, but it has also a connection with its organization.

Each kindergarten has a council, which includes, in addition to the teachers and parents, members representing the workers' committee, the communistic unit of the factory plant, its women's organization and so forth.

The representatives of the plant visit the kindergarten. On the other hand, the teachers of the kindergarten enter the cultural committee of the plant. They hold conferences on educational and public health problems.

Kindergarten teachers work with parents, thus establishing confidence and respect between kindergarten and home. A close intercourse between teachers and parents is established by individual conferences, teacher-parent meetings,



1 Third International Kindergarten



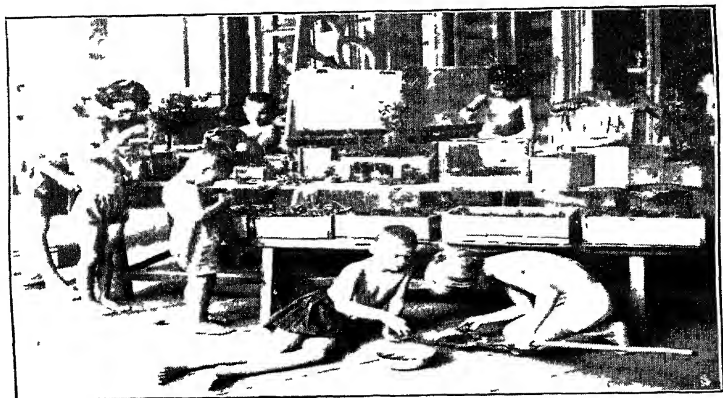
*Occupations at the Children's Crèche at the
"Zvonkovo" Factory*



4 Kindergarten



1 Kindergarten in Summer



Nature Work at a Moscow Kindergarten



A Kindergarten Excursion

home visits, exhibitions of children's work and festivals organized in the kindergarten and factory clubs. The mothers visit the kindergarten and learn how to handle their children. In some kindergartens mothers are found to be on regular duty. The teachers advise mothers on the care to be taken of their children at home.

There exists also a popular literature of magazines and pamphlets, in which advice is given to mothers on the subject of children's health and education.

Summer Playgrounds in Villages

Another great problem is the help to be given to the peasant mother in order to free her, especially during the hard field-work of the summer. The creation of permanent village kindergartens is an aim held in view. But their number now reaches only 300 because of the lack of means and suitable premises. As long as the network of kindergartens is insufficient, temporary playgrounds for Pre-school children are being established in villages.

In the summer of 1924 there were 300 playgrounds for 12,000 children

In the summer of 1925 there were 1,500 playgrounds for 75,000 children

In the summer of 1926 there were 3,000 playgrounds for 150,000 children

In the summer of 1927 there were 4,000 playgrounds for 200,000 children

If the work of a playground is successful efforts are made to continue it the following summer, or, if it is possible, to transform it into a permanent kindergarten. *In this way the organization of a playground is a step towards the establishment of a kindergarten.*

In villages, kindergarten teachers work heavily handicapped. They have to face material difficulties; they are distrusted in the beginning by the population; the work itself is long and tedious. Children remain on the playground ten hours on the average; some playgrounds are open as much as eighteen hours a day.

But the enthusiasm and energy of the kindergarteners surmount all obstacles. In many cases the playground workers are students of universities and training

schools. Last summer there were 425 students sent from four universities and twenty-eight training colleges (pedagogical technicums). They were sent in addition to the regular teachers.

Summer playgrounds were organized not only in Russian villages but also in those of other nationalities of the Union. There were playgrounds for Tartar, German, Jewish, Lithuanian, Mordva, White Russian, Circassian, Greek, Kirghiz and other children,—in all 30 nationalities. One hundred and sixty-one students were trained in special training courses for this work with different nationalities.

The playground teachers try to draw all the village organizations into the work. They ask schoolteachers, members of the Komsomol (Junior Communistic Union), members of the Cantonal Executive Committee, of the village council, of the women's organization, of the Committee of Mutual Assistance, etc., to co-operate.

The peasant population, in places where the playground is being organized for the first time, is inclined to be suspicious and distrustful. The peasants are afraid to send their children to it. They often fear that taxes may be increased. They do not wish to share in maintaining the playground. The teachers have to persuade them at meetings and by individual conferences.

But the work of the playground itself is the best propaganda of pre-school work. In its foreground stands the care of the children's health. The years of war and of the failure of crops have left traces behind them. A large percentage of the children is prone to sickness. In villages there are many cases of cacoehymy and of skin disease. This is owing also to unhygienic conditions of life.

Health supervision is instituted for the playground. At the opening and closing of the playground a physician examines the children, who are submitted to a strict regime. Nutrition, walks, exercise and rest periods form part of it, heavy garments are replaced by combina-

tions and bathing trousers. Children are rubbed with cold water and bathed. Sun baths are introduced. Much attention is given to developing habits of hygiene. The latter are readily transmitted to the children's homes. The children will no longer use the common drinking cup or the family towel. *The playground thus becomes a small cultural centre*

The improvement in the children's health as well as the pedagogical work on the playground overcome the distrust shown by parents at the outset of the work. At the closing of the playground peasants generally express their desire to have a playground again in the following summer. In some cases it is possible to transform the playground into a winter kindergarten.

Besides these two typical Pre-school institutions—the factory kindergarten in the town and the summer playground in the village—there are in U.S.S.R. also some Pre-school children's homes (for boarders), some children's rooms attached to clubs, some permanent kindergartens in villages, town playgrounds and playgrounds for mine-workers' children, playgrounds in agricultural fellowships and playgrounds organized by lodging societies.

Principles of Pre-School Work

The principles of the Pre-school work are certainly the same in town kindergartens as in the villages. I have detailed them in my article "The Kindergarten in Russia," which appeared in the magazine, *Childhood Education*. * I shall mention them briefly now: (1) The improvement of children's health; (2) the encouraging of habits of work, co-operation, culture and hygiene; (3) accustoming the children to a realistic and practical mode of thought.

The basis of the very existence of a Pre-school institution is *collective work* to the extent of each child's ability. The

child begins by self-helping; he learns how to fasten his buttons, how to take off and put on his shoes. Socially useful work is then added. Children are on duty: they wash up the dishes, sweep the room, dust it, help by turns in the kitchen. During the summer they work in the garden and kitchen-garden. These duties naturally vary according to the age of children. A feeling of responsibility for his work is developed in the child.

When the children first understand the necessity of the division of labour they organize working groups or committees on sanitation, house-keeping, natural history problems and so forth. In this way children acquire in the kindergarten the rudiments of self-government. Children's assemblies are arranged, at which they discuss their needs and the means of satisfying them. Endeavours are made to initiate children into modern life.

This is accomplished in three ways:—
(1) by acquainting children with the work of grown-up people, especially with the work of the factory to which the kindergarten is attached; and in summer agricultural work is made known to children.

(2) By establishing a connection with Pioneers or Scouts; Pioneers visit the kindergarten; they help the children in such tasks as repairing their toys, they teach them their own games and have talks with them.

(3) By participation in national festivals.

Portraits of the popular leaders of the Revolution are hung on the walls. In each kindergarten there is a Lenin's nook; it is the spot consecrated to Lenin's memory. The children's minds are prepared for each national festival by preliminary talks. On these days the children are driven about the town in decorated automobiles.

During the last ten years three All-Russian conventions on Pre-school education were convoked: the first in 1919, the second in 1921, the third in 1924. The fourth is designed to take place in 1928.

* "The Kindergarten in Russia," *Childhood Education*, Sept. and Oct., 1926 (U.S.A.).

Rural Schools in the Soviet Union

By Dr. Lucy L. W. Wilson

(Principal of S. Philadelphia High School for Girls; Author of "Education for Responsibility")

Dr. Wilson last visited Russia in August and September, 1927.

In all the larger cities of what was once European Russia, elementary education, at least, has been made universal. There is a seat for every child. The situation in the country is less fortunate. The desire for education, slow in coming, has been awakened, but in spite of the fact that the peasants themselves are constructing schools with their own hands—the peasants of the Kingisepp district near Leningrad in 1926, with their own hands, at their own expense, built seven large new schools—there are not even buildings enough, suitable or unsuitable, to accommodate those who seek admission into the schools. The problem is one that only time and money can solve.

The problem is everywhere the same. All children need kindergartens, hearths, playgrounds; elementary, secondary and vocational education. There must be opportunity for the gifted, for the defective, and for those whose earlier education was neglected. But the difficulties in the way of a practical solution of the problem are more numerous and harder to overcome in the village than in the town. About 82 per cent of the population is rural and scattered, so that equal educational opportunity under most favourable conditions will cost much more than in town.

Post-Revolutionary Rural Education

In 1926, when for the first time universal education was attained in the larger towns, less than half the village children were given the same opportunity. Even in the Ukraine, go-getter though is that State, they are expecting to educate not more than sixty per cent of the village children, 1927-1928.

These are the low lights, less discouraging to those of us who know the slow

development of rural education in our own country than to those whose horizon is bounded by the knowledge only of compulsory education in Northern Europe and in the large cities of recent date. In the Russian picture, too, there are high lights; the base on which they are building is sound. According to the Binet-Burt tests, peasant children in elementary schools rank higher in intelligence than town children. In other words, their life experiences, probably (particularly their first-hand contact with nature), have served admirably as the first school for their mental development. Moreover, the plan, the curriculum with which they are working, is so organized as to fit the work to the local environment with the definite aim of its constant improvement. Also, the scheme for supervision and guidance is excellent. In each rural district (*volost*) there is an experimental school, with curricular and organizational freedom, whose duty it is definitely to help all the teachers in the same region by mutual visits, conferences, and in other practical ways. Of course, the success of this scheme depends upon the human variable of the quality of both groups of teachers.

A Group of Fine Rural Schools

In Kaluga province, about one hundred and twenty-five miles from Moscow, there is a *volost* in which is located a Children's Colony, with its secondary school, a musical and social centre, a museum, a library. Dependent for guidance upon the colony are thirty-five villages. Within a mile or two from each village, often in the village itself, there is a school. In all there are thirteen elementary schools, seven kindergartens, and a secondary school in addition to the colony

school. There are thirty-four village teachers for six hundred and seventeen village children. The director of the group is Stanislaus Shatzky, a leader in education even in pre-revolutionary days. The region is bogland (clayey) forest, of low economic value—very lovely, undulating land, with woods of pines and birches of exquisite beauty. From the land alone scarcely any family can earn the necessities of life. In consequence weaving—hand-loom, of course—is a family occupation. Day and night someone is at the loom, perhaps a child, perhaps an adult, each taking his turn. In the *volost* there is a local textile and a potato products factory. Each week many men go into the city to work, leaving the farm work almost entirely to the women. On Saturday night, about nine, they return home. The tide of life runs high until they leave their homes in the pitch dark of early morning, walking miles, often, to the station in time to catch the last morning train—3 a.m. in summer, 5 a.m. in winter! The normal sanitary, social, and cultural level is low, as everywhere in rural Russia. A single bed, perhaps with individual sheepskins, a single dish, are considered adequate even for a large family. The schools are making some headway, however, in establishing the right of the child to an individual shake-down and a piece of washable cloth between her or him and the sheepskin!

The work of the women is hard and incessant, but they are handsome and vigorous, and they dominate village life. The work of the children is important, and therefore too heavy for them, but they are intelligent and gay. Instead of trying to increase their home work, very wisely the schools are trying to organize it, so that it may bear less heavily upon them, and so that they may understand its inner meaning, its relation to surrounding life, as well as the meaning and social importance of all labour.

In these schools the teaching is quite uniformly good, although the teachers are of all ages and with very different

types of preparation. In a consolidated school, serving two villages, one man is in charge of Grades 3 and 4 (ages 10, 11, 12). He skilfully plans his day so that always when he is needed for guidance and demonstration with one group exclusively, the other has self-directed work. For example, Grade 3 had been investigating the question of the shape of the earth by getting hold of the village theories through personal questionings, by reading and by thinking. After a lively class discussion, which later was co-operatively organized into a black-board outline, he left them to write it up, visiting Grade 4. In his absence the latter had weighed dried potatoes, comparing this weight with the weight of the same potatoes as they had come fresh from the ground. Their results were already entered in their notebooks in a shipshape, business-like way. The first problem—why did the potatoes now weigh much less?—was answered easily enough. The next question—how shall we find out what substances other than water enter into the make-up of the potato?—was a more difficult problem. I left them grating the potato to return to the classroom to see what the children were doing with the round world. Every child was writing vigorously. There was no chewing of penholders. On the contrary, the difficulty seemed to be that there was too much to tell. Very charmingly, and with much variety of expression, they reported on the beliefs of the village people that the earth was flat, that it was four-cornered, that it rested on the back of a turtle, on those of three elephants, that, as "my grandfather says," wrote one, "however it is, it is as God made it."

Nor are the "disciplines," as they call academic work, neglected in these schools. Reading, writing, arithmetic, all were carefully and thoroughly taught with modern didactic material and methods. Flat blocks, with areas obviously multiples of ten, were used to teach and to illustrate the place values of digits. Invariably the written work and the notebooks of the children were carefully



Laboratory Lesson at a Rabfac (Workers' School)—Three years' Secondary Course for Adult Workers



Factory Club—Liquidation of Illiteracy



A Factory School Evening Club

written. Never once did I hear any discussion of the principle of good workmanship. Instead, everywhere, it was practised. Apparently, orderly ways of doing all school work had entered into the very backbones of the children.

The Complexes (projects, in American pedagogues) which have been developed in these schools are the direct outgrowth of a very real living together. They have been evolved round the holidays, excursions, meetings, exhibitions, school, home rule, children's organizations, children's co-operatives (for buying seeds, soap, breeding animals, etc.) and, above all, the definite improvement of village living conditions. For example, the question arose, some years ago, in reference to the bodies of dead animals that appeared on the snows in winter. Whence? Why? What advantage or disadvantage? It is now five years since the children began to study the problem, in which, too, they succeeded in interesting their families. Now, almost automatically, when such a body is found it is promptly and decently disposed of, so that there may be no spring infections from it. In this instance the stimulus came from the children and the school. But it was the elders who asked the co-operation of the school in solving the problem of the continual depreciation in the crops that were raised each year on a certain hill-top.

The most powerful school leadership in this community, very naturally, comes from the secondary school of the colony. Its agricultural experiments in introducing new plants, strawberries, for example, have spread all over the countryside. Then experiments in the scientific feeding of cattle to get bigger milk returns, at the same or less cost, have influenced the entire community. At first the Colony school accepted cattle from the peasants, in order, by proper feeding, to bring them up to standard. No longer is such a demonstration necessary.

The children's co-operatives, also, have made a deep impression on the population.

They see that thus can be bought the small things that make for comfort that otherwise cannot be obtained in the village.

The Colony secondary school has one hundred and thirty pupils, mostly peasants, of whom eighty are internes. The rest come from the villages. Several unusually gifted children have been discovered and sent on to Moscow for still higher and more specialized instruction. The school has a farm, workshops, the home, and other laboratories. There are at least two grand pianos and music is a dominating influence. Music, drama, current events—these three draw large creative audiences from the whole countryside. The principal of the school is Miss Shatzky, a graduate of the Moscow Conservatory with an added year in Paris. I was much interested in a lesson that she herself gave in what to my unsophisticated eyes looked like Dalcroze eurhythmics. "Oh, no," she said. "Of course, I have studied and seen much of his work. But these are Russian rhythms and I give no commands except through the music. Of course, the basic idea is his, but it is my detail and it is *echt* Russian." Is not this the secret of all success in using the work of others—adaptation to the material at hand, and consequent re-creation?

In the Colony school (secondary grades only) there are twenty-two teachers, including a physician and an agronomist. Except the latter two, scarcely any are trained specialists. All, however, are educated in life as well as in books, all realize the real meaning of education, and all can lend a hand effectually. Two years ago they were trying hard to let the Complex dominate the class-room work, stopping whenever there was an opportunity to teach incidentally mathematics or a language, or any other tool subject that might be needed.

Now these subjects (disciplines) are all taught in separate laboratories. This does not mean the abandonment of the Complex. The Complex dominating every laboratory in September and

October, 1927, was the progress of the Union during the last ten years. In conference the teachers discussed and outlined a programme assigning its quota of work to the proper laboratory—the growth of the party to the history laboratory, the development in electricity to physics, agriculture, to biology, the making of illustrative charts and graphs to mathematics and art, and the like.

This tentative outline was discussed with the children, revised, reorganized. Then the children chose their own unit and decided how they should work at it. Each laboratory was equipped with books, pamphlets, posters, and charts. The children worked for the most part collectively. Here and there an individualistic child worked by himself. The final result will be in the form of a written thesis: a collective contribution from each class, with index and table of contents; with intelligent reports; with illustrations; and with graphs that would be a credit to a well-trained adult or group of adults. The principle of good workmanship receives its crown in such undertakings.

After the results are all in, the faculty will meet again to discuss the high and low lights of the development and final outcome of this Complex to guide them in working out the next. Therein lies one secret of their success. Collaboration is incessant and eternal. Always, since the world began, under such circumstances, two and two have made many more than four.

These teachers collaborate not only with each other but with the community, assisting in improving living conditions, rural economy, in developing co-operatives. In their turn, the peasants help the school. Such collective work on the part of the teachers is much more usual than with us.

Certainly Russian teachers and children can scheme things out better than most; not because they are superficial, but because they have vision and see things in wholes.

In towns, the kindergartens are usually independently located in reference to other schools. In this community the desire is to have one in connection with each school, the better to relieve the mother, by making the school the solution of all her problems. But kindergartens come slowly everywhere. The first kindergarten here was not established until 1920, when the Colony was nine years old. In summer there are additional hearths and playgrounds. These pre-schools are all under the direction of Madame Azarewitch, one of the original group, with Shatzky, in what is now the First Educational Experimental Station, Moscow.

The Other Side of the Shield

In this same province there are more than a score of schools whose work is directed from another centre. The programme, the social and economic conditions, are much the same. What of the schools?

In one of them, mechanically following the official programme, lessons on the shape of the world had already taken place. With what result? A neatly written theme from every child, identical in composition, quite lifeless, therefore, stating academically that the earth was round, that in early times, and still in the villages, people thought that it was flat, etc.

In another class, a lesson in Russian, third grade, meant a lifeless, word-perfect recitation of several poems, followed by the hearing of a previously studied lesson on the cases of pronouns. History, fourth grade, was prepared by routine oral reading of a text, and mathematics by doing examples.

"What lessons do you like best?" Almost invariably the answer was—"Writing."

The school was no worse than thousands of similar institutions in other countries, good enough of its kind, but that not good.

After the session was over the teachers kindly remained to talk to me:

No, they did not use the Complex, although they followed the programme

The Complex was too difficult, and, besides, the children were not interested in what was going on in the village. They knew all that

Well, the bird Complex was not so bad. The children liked birds

No, they took no part in the village life. The children were all right in school, but they were not nice in the village, and, anyway, they were glad to say good-bye to them at the end of the day. The work was very tiring, at the best

Oh, teachers, teachers—the same the world round! Some of you—many of you—real artists with constant joy in your creation; more of you, conscientious artisans; and, alas! many of you, with no vision of your work—which in turn revenges itself upon you by disguising itself as drudgery.

New Types of Rural Schools

In addition to extending rural schools, the Commissariat of Education has introduced many new types. Of these, at one end of the scale, are one-year courses for peasants, together with training-schools for their teachers, and, at the other end, the Timiriazev Institute of Agricultural Economy, with its correspondence courses.

The one-year courses for peasants opened in 1925. Like the Danish Folk Schools, they take advantage of the seasonal nature of agriculture to offer instruction from October to March, twelve hours per week, for twenty-two weeks. The admission requirement is mastery of the three R's. They give courses in social science, mathematics, co-operation and local agronomy. Unlike the Danish school, the emphasis is not on the "living word," but on self-activity and on practical work on their own farms.

Some Results from Rural Education

In spite of its present inadequacy, the magnitude of the post-revolutionary educational work in rural Russia may be gauged by the facts in reference (1) to the development of the Post, and (2) the development of the newspapers, especially the *Peasants' Gazette*.

In 1913 there were 2,800 rural letter-boxes, serving only three per cent of the population. In 1926, 64,000 such boxes served fifty-two per cent of the population. Moreover, travelling postoffices—on wheels—give bi-weekly service to many out-of-the-way villages. The route of each such wheeled postoffice averages twelve and a half miles per day. The service is not limited to actual postoffice routine. The driver accepts newspaper and journal subscriptions, and distributes agricultural goods.

In White Russia, in 1926, three hundred and twenty book pavilions were opened by post and telegraph agents

The *Peasants' Gazette* increased its circulation from 50,000 in 1923 to 1,000,000 in 1926. In these three years it has received and answered hundreds of thousands of letters (180,000 in 1926) on all sorts of subjects—taxes, land distribution, agronomics, co-operation, credit, insurance, education, government, legal problems, Red Army. Letters, perhaps twenty per cent of the whole number, complaining of injustice on the part of officials, are investigated by competent authorities, and, in consequence, many such officials have been removed, and some of them brought to trial.

From these thousands of correspondents has been formed an active group of permanent correspondents (selkors), for whose self-education the editors of the *Peasants' Gazette* publishes a special magazine.

Of course, there are all kinds of selkors, but many of them are active and earnest workers for the *New Village*, in which there shall be neither poverty nor illiteracy.

The *Peasants' Gazette* is the most striking illustration of the fact that education is marching on in the villages. But there are other journals telling the same story. All of them have been born since the revolution. Here are their titles: *Science*, *Every Man Has Own Agronomist*, *Kustar y Artel* (Crafts and Co-operatives)

"The Apiary," Moscow

(A Russian Kindergarten, visited in Summer, 1926)

By H. W. Hawkins

VERY great importance is attached to Pre-school education by the People's Commissariat for Public Education.

The particular Pre-school work I shall describe was carried on in what was in former days a large private house with ample garden space. It is situated in the heart of a working-class district of Moscow, and is named "The Apiary." It represents an average type, some being better and some worse.

On our arrival we found the children in the garden playground with their teachers, where they spend most of their time in the summer. They also make frequent excursions to the Zoo and other such interesting places for tiny tots. They were very lightly clothed, and looked delightfully brown and chubby.

"The Apiary" is attached to a sewing factory in the district; that is, it serves the need of the women workers employed at making dresses, enabling them to leave home for work while the children attend "the foyer" under the care and guidance of trained infant teachers. Every room of the building was visited, our teacher guides talking to us with passionate interest of the work being done, and readily answering our numerous enquiries.

There were the usual wee chairs and tables common to most good infant schools anywhere; but the remainder of the furnishings was made by the teachers and the children, and was eloquent of the struggle, as also of the genius, to make-do and of the spirit to succeed of which the enthusiasm of Russia's intensely earnest workers continually reminded us.

Fifty-five children were on the roll, divided into three groups, eldest, middle and babies. In Russian infant schools, 20 forms a maximum number for a group and the normal is 15 or 16. There were

16 in the eldest group of this school, and each group has two mistresses working on the double-shift system, because in the "foyer" type of school, the hours (7.30 a.m. to 5 p.m.) conform to the times when the factory to which it is attached starts and stops—in this case 7.30 a.m. to 5 p.m.

Though the children were small, the mistress explained, an attempt was made to enable them to understand the work in their mothers' factory. This forms the starting point or basis of the content of their education. For pedagogy in Russia is grounded on elements that inculcate in the child a realist outlook on life, collectivist habits, and active creative work. Nothing is taught to the young, not even fairytales, that fosters a superstitious view of life, or that detracts from practical reality. For example, the children used reels from the factory in various play lessons. The paper stamps off these reels were cut up to make letters, and build words and slogans. One such stamp-slogan arranged on a red banner, placed in the class-room of the eldest group, read —

We don't eat bread from the country for nothing, we give dresses in return

This three-year-old banner and its slogan, we were told, had formed the subject of much interesting work and many talks. Its origin lay in a visit the children had made to a colony of peasant children in the country. There it was discovered that dresses did not come from the fields but from such town factories as the one where mother worked. So many talks round the theme had resulted that in time a simple ballad was composed and formed into a school song. From this example and in a very simple way the evolution of ballads was dealt with. And thus was sown the seed that will lead to the joining of hands of the industrial

worker and the peasant, and the recognition of their mutual inter-dependence.

Another banner showed paper specimens of dresses, and the slogan:—

After the Revolution we must sew better.

How had the children been brought to realise this?

American machines had been introduced into the factory, resulting in an increase of production. This meant more wages for mother, and hence better dresses for the little ones. Not to mention more sweets! The substitution of the paper specimens on the banner by cloth ones further reminded the children how mother's sewing was being improved.

As in all schools, factories, and public institutions where students and workers are engaged, a wall newspaper was prominent in the main room. To this newspaper a picture of Djerzinsky had been recently added. The children had talked about him, his character, work and death. Pictures of Rykoff, Lunacharsky, and Sun Yat Sen were also prominent, each picture daintily framed with leaves gathered from the garden by the children. A little boy had brought the picture of the great Chinese rebel, we were told, and had asked for it to be put on the wall.

In the dining-room were special charts dealing with the kinds of food and the meals the children receive daily. These charts are specially prepared for the parents, who are told at bi-weekly conferences what foods to give their children, and instructed on simple matters relating to health and hygiene. The height and weight of each child are kept regularly. Individual mothers are advised how to deal with any simple physical or psychological difficulty noted in their respective children.

Another chart of special interest to the parents enabled them to understand how the children's day was spent: the children arrive about 7.30 a.m., and by 8 o'clock the registers are marked; the first breakfast is ready by 9 a.m. and work follows till 10.30 when organised games begin, lasting till midday; the babies then have

their dinner, and at 12.30 the elder ones have theirs; attention to personal hygiene, particularly the cleaning of teeth, takes place from 1 till 2.30 when the children all go to bed. Tea is prepared by 4 p.m., a choice between tea or milk being allowed; games follow till the parents call for their little folk soon after 5 p.m.

Since all but the heavier work of scrubbing, cooking and washing is done by the children working in co-operation with the teachers, all have certain daily tasks, and take their turn in an organised manner. Thus is acquired at the earliest age the habit of doing the socially necessary work of life—laying and clearing meal tables, washing up, dusting, etc. All this is treated as a valuable part of the child's education. Charts showing only Christian names explain how the tasks are allotted each day.

In the class-rooms of the eldest and middle groups the children place a crayon mark on attendance charts opposite their Christian names as soon as they arrive. Monday has a green mark, Tuesday a brown one, Wednesday a blue, and so on. The days of the week are thus soon known. Holidays and Sundays are shown by strips of plain coloured paper.

Each group has a room where the members wash themselves and clean their teeth. Each child has a toothbrush and powder, and a towel and soap cabinet. As many of the children have no such hygienic necessities at home, special attention is paid to the teaching of personal cleanliness in order that the children shall become propagandists of hygiene in their homes.

The towels of the babies who do not know their letters are marked in one corner with the coloured initial of their Christian names, and the same coloured initial is painted on paper beneath the corresponding hanging peg. Its tiny owner soon comes to recognise the similarity of the sign on the towel corner and that under the hanging peg, and hence soon knows its own and other children's signs, although the letters are

not named. Thus the children visually learn the alphabet and visual reading of the simplest words soon follows naturally.

We noticed the chairs and tables in the babies' class-rooms were quite new. Enquiring the reason for this we were informed that the school consisted only of the eldest and middle groups down to January, 1926. By that time the parents had realised the many advantages of the "foyer," and that the three-year-olds must attend also. The latter group is subsidized by the factory workers, but the expenses incurred with the two older groups are borne by the Commissariat of Public Education.

A Play Corner we saw contained many toys of plain wood. Many pieces were similar to those listed in the Montessori didactic apparatus. A large room, called the Museum, is especially reserved for creative work.

The Sanitary Corner consisted of a small case, 16in. by 12in., attached to the wall of a smaller room and near the window. Just below it was a small, con-

veniently low table. The case contained iodine, 'odol, bandages, scissors, etc. Here the children come to be treated who prick their fingers at sewing, scratch or bruise themselves while at play. Over and around the case were decorative slogans:—

Children, be safe and sound, and Wash your hands before meals and your teeth afterwards.

Specimen copy-books were seen containing simple texts on health written by the older children.

The medical chest was school made and the children were also making button boxes for their mothers' use on the sewing benches of the factory. During visits to the latter, the children had noticed many buttons on the floor, and had come to the conclusion that such boxes were necessary. Thus they had learnt how to help the factory by keeping it clean and tidy. They were being trained through such work to take initiative in improving their own conditions when they become workers in factories.

Research into the Drawings of Pre-School Children

By E. Florina

EXPERIMENTAL work on children's drawings and indeed in the whole field of children's creative work has long been carried on in Russia, but it is only in the last decade that the rank and file of teachers has been drawn into the work and that various centres of investigation have been started. One of these centres of research is the State Academy of Art, where, in the Department of Primitive Art, under the direction of M. A. Bakoushinsky, much work is being done on material collected from Russian children and from the children of the national minorities of the U.S.S.R.

The interest and value of this work lies not only in the enormous mass of material gathered but also in the problems it presents and the methods of work it illustrates. The results of creative work in the fields of drawing and modelling, etc., are studied, together with the children's general behaviour during these activities and their reactions to them. The study of problems deals with the form and content of the child's work, and particularly with his grasp of superficial and dimensional form, of colour, of size, etc. These researches have for their aim the penetrating of the mysteries of artistic evolution in the child and the rationalisation of artistic education.

We give below the conclusions arrived at as the results of studying the evolution of form in the drawings of children under school age.

1 The life-task of earliest childhood is the orientation towards surroundings (especially surroundings in a material sense) and the development of the individuality.

2 The child's guiding principle is movement—motor activity.

3 Sensory-motor reactions are dominant at this age, the child learns by means of them, he explores his material surroundings and masters them.

4 The bent of the motor activity determines the form taken by the first scrawls the child makes on paper, his first attempts at modelling in clay, etc.

5 The motor activity of small children is based upon the work of the larger muscles. The child's movements strive towards rhythmic co-ordination. Accordingly we find in children's drawings traces of rhythm, the point, the straight line, the oval, etc. We do not yet find eye control.

6 Further, we see the results of differentiated movement, and the control being assumed by the maturing power of vision. Accordingly the succeeding stage in the evolution of form shows the same elements, but in definite order.

7 The succeeding stage is characterized by growing eye control and by definitely experienced movements. We call this the associative period, i.e. the appearance of form in the child's drawings. These primitive forms become associated with external

objects and are named after them. Association arises even when similarity is very remote, and there are very few recognisable elements in the drawings. These chance associations are very often regarded by adults as insignificant, but this is a wrong view. Greater development in powers shows us actual transition to known forms and outlines. Forms drawn by chance become actual objects by means of additions: the child, for instance, draws a blob, sees in the blob a resemblance to a dog, and completes the form by adding four little feet.

8. The period of the suspension of the child's visual motor activity gives us the true mechanism by which he becomes aware of and reflects upon any given object. Kerschensteiner and others have noticed the same characteristics. The evolution of this mechanism is seen in an accumulation of characteristics and the transition from the static to the dynamic.

9. The motor activity is seen at work in drawings covering a long period of time. This explains the transparency of houses and of the clothes on human figures, etc. The child draws according to his experience in movement. This activity also explains the evolution of space representation.

(a) The child turns the sheet of paper as if he were surrounding himself with objects.

(b) The position of the objects on the sheet is of no importance, there is no upper and no lower position.

(c) The structure is frieze-like, the objects being built up on one horizontal plane.

(d) The form is further complicated: two- or three-fold friezes appear.

Beyond this stage the child does not progress under school age. The child of school age reaches two further stages.

(e) The bird's-eye view.

(f) The representation of perspective.

10. The adult painter gives the dynamic in the static form: the child gives the static in the dynamic form. The content of childish drawings in the pre-school age changes gradually in the actual course of the work, during which the whole drawing may be ruined. The child draws a house in colours, and then daubs it all over with the brush. "Why have you spoiled your picture?" asks the teacher. "They have all gone away, they aren't coming back, the house is shut up," is the reply.

Types of Russian Schools: Definitions

(These definitions are taken from Mr. Scott Nearing's book *Education in Soviet Russia** and from the *Guide to the Soviet Union*†)

Pre-School Education refers to educational work with children between the ages of three and eight. Children under three years are in charge of the Central Board of Social Education. After the age of three they are in the charge of the Commissariat of Education. Children of eight come under the compulsory education law. Pre-school education covers the period from three to eight years and includes kindergartens, nurseries, playgrounds, etc.

Mass Education is the education that all children are supposed to have. It includes ages from 8 to 18 or 19. All children in the Soviet Union will ultimately go to school during those years. For the present the lack of buildings and of equipment makes general compulsory education impossible.

The Combined or Unified School (or United Labour School) is the basic type of Soviet school. The first stage (ages 8 to 12) has a uniform curriculum, the second stage (ages 12 to 17) seeks to discover the individual inclinations and abilities of pupils. These schools are sometimes referred to as "labour" schools or as "seven-year" schools, although now many of them are adding two years to the original seven years.

Professional Education is the specialised training given to students between the ages of 15 and 18 or 19. It includes Factory Schools. Professional education is intended to train disciplined, efficient workers. According to the Soviet plan, all workers will complete a course of training in a Professional School.

Factory Schools are run in connection with some industrial enterprise. The students usually include all of the apprentices at work in the enterprise. Students are from 14 or 15 to 18 and 19 years of

age. They spend four hours of each day in the school and four in the factory.

Higher Technical Schools are those institutions of college grade that take students at about 18 years of age and train them in some special subject. They are not part of the compulsory education but are intended for those only who are able to benefit by them.

Universities are institutions doing general educational work of college grade. The students include health workers, education workers, metal workers, miners and railroad workers. In 1925 there were 24 Universities as compared with seven before the war.

Rabfacs or Workers' Faculties are higher technical schools designed to take care of workers who have never had any educational opportunities, and who are sent direct from factories into the Rabfac to receive a technical education. They furnish a three-years' course and turn out an average of 8,000 students every year fully equipped for study in the higher schools.

The Pioneers. These associations resemble very much in their form the Boy Scouts, but the ideal is considerably different. The Pioneers form a kind of élite body of young people, they have to maintain a sense of honour, they have a special badge—the red scarf—a special form of salutation and a special hymn. They love life in the open air, take long walks—which for them are excursions for study—during the holidays they camp in the villages and work with the peasants. Everywhere they try to make themselves useful.

The Pioneers at the age of about 16 may be admitted into the **Communist Youth**, where they continue their social and political education.

* From *The Plebs League*, 162a, Buckingham Palace Road, London, 2/-.

† The Russian Red Cross, 150, Southampton Row, London, W.C. 1, 6/-.

Hints for Teachers Visiting Russia

General

An intending visitor ought to communicate with the U.S.S.R. Society of Cultural Relations in his own country and in Moscow (Malaya Nikitskaya 6).

Address in England The U.S.S.R. Society of Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (150, Southampton Row, London, W.C.1).

For general information consult "Guide to the Soviet Union," 6/-, from the U.S.S.R. Society of Cultural Relations, 150, Southampton Row, London, W.C.1.

The Friends Centre, Moscow, is willing to assist travellers (Miss D. White and Mr A. Wickstead).

Travel

By land (Belgium or Holland, Berlin, Polish Corridor, Lithuania, Latvia to Riga, thence to Moscow)—Second class there and back about £40. By Russian steamer—there and back about £25.

Travelling in Russia is expensive. The transportation itself is cheap but the distances are long.

The Workers' Travel Association, Transport House, Smith Square, Westminster, S.W.1, arrange parties for visits to Russia, inclusive cost about £40 per head. Travel by steamer from London to Leningrad. Sea passage takes 5½ to 6 days each way. Thirteen days are spent in Russia.

Accommodation

Living expenses about \$5 (£1) per day in hotels. Pensions and private families are scarce. Anyone wanting to study in Moscow or Leningrad might stay at the house of Tzekoubou (house of scientists)—

dormitory accommodation—and reduce expenses to 8/- per day.

Such an arrangement should be made through the Society of Cultural Relations at Moscow.

One can apply for guidance either to the People's Commissariat for Education or to the Trade Unions of Educational Workers. Living in an hotel is costly, and these educational organisations can supply lodging at their own boarding houses which they have in nearly all the big cities in Russia.

Educational Contacts

The People's Commissariat for Education and its local branches in various districts, Mr Lunacharsky, Mme Kroupskaya, Professor Pokrovsky and all officials of the Educational Department of R.S.F.S.R., the Trade Union of Educational Workers and its branches, and the Cultural Department of the General Council of Trade Unions.

Places to Visit

Among so much that is interesting the following may be mentioned—

The Universities of Moscow and Leningrad, the Experimental Schools of Russia and Ukraine, University for Knowledge of the East, Communist Academy, Marx and Engels Institute, Moscow and Leningrad Workers' Faculties, various Factory Schools in Moscow.

Apply for any details and recommendations for visiting schools, colleges and educational institutions to the U.S.S.R. Society of Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, Mrs Kameneva, Moscow, Malaya Nikitskaya 6.

Organisation of Summer Playgrounds for Small Children

With the beginning of the summer there was increased activity in the organisation of playgrounds for small children in factory and village districts. In 1926 there were 2,000 such playgrounds organised, serving 150,000 children. The People's Commissariat of Education has set aside for the support of the leaders of the playgrounds considerable funds, and has commissioned 400 students from the pedagogical faculties of the universities and of the pedagogical technicums for the organisation of these playgrounds. One hundred of those commissioned belong to the National Minorities of 30 different races. Every commissioned student is paid his fares and expenses and is equipped with a library and a travelling medicine chest, donated by the People's Commissariat of Health. In all the higher schools were given special courses preparatory to this work in the villages.

Mother and Child Welfare

Special instructions have been worked out for the organisation of so-called "corners" of mother and

child at the co-operative stores. The "corners" pursue the purpose to show the mother-customer the correct principles of bringing up the child in the family and what is most needed for the child of pre-school age. In the "corners" will be shown all the articles of modern hygiene and pedagogy needed for the proper bringing up of the young child. In glass cases will be exhibited samples of articles which each mother should and can buy for her child if she desires to bring him up properly. But even the ignorant mother will probably follow the directions of the "corners" because of the posters and slogans which will illustrate the subject. Among the articles for sale will be dishes, underclothing, garments and shoes, toys and literature.

The "corners" will be of great significance for the cities which do not have a sufficient number of kindergartens to meet the needs of the children of the workers and employees. But a still greater service they will render to the villages where the mothers are still very ignorant and subject to all kinds of superstitions as regards the education of the child.

A Decade of Soviet Education

By Prof. S. Ivanoff

(National University, Voronège)

THE Czarist Government had long been deaf to appeals for educational reform even from men of the calibre of Léon Tolstói, and on its overthrow in October, 1917, it left behind a heavy heritage in this respect. The new rulers of Russia lost no time in enunciating the principles of republican education: schools were to be gratuitous and accessible to all, education obligatory.

Many years of practical work were needed to attain the desired ends, for the obstacles in their path were tremendous—civil war, famine, (foreign) intervention, the general economic crisis, and the lack of institutions adapted to the new methods.

1918—1921

These early years of Soviet régime were devoted by the Government to propaganda, on behalf of the New School, in the nation and in the body of teachers. A great deal of trouble and energy were expended, but not in vain, in thus winning over public opinion. Already at the close of this period (1920-1921) the majority of schools had begun to develop self-organizations (cells, circles, etc.), and had taken up nature-study, hand-work, illustration. Old verbal methods of instruction were disappearing, replaced by activity in teaching. The new methods had the advantages of inciting children to the experimental analysis of their surroundings, and made for their active participation in the New School. On the other hand, the principle of work often degenerated into self-service, the pupils employing themselves in the service of the school instead of *et* study, carrying water, cleaving wood, and stoking the furnaces.

Figures show the growth of education in this period, the contrasted years being 1914-15 and 1920-21 —

PRIMARY

PUPILS	Increase from	7,235,988	to	9,211,351
SCHOOLS	" " "	107,610	to	114,235

SECONDARY

PUPILS	Increase from	564,613	to	569,378
SCHOOLS	" " "	1,790	to	4,163

PROFESSIONAL

PUPILS	Increase from	266,982	to	293,811
SCHOOLS	" " "	2,877	to	3,727

1921—1922

In this year expansion ceased; and a reduction took place both in the number of schools and of pupils, due to economic causes, particularly to the stabilisation of the rouble. Thus the number of primary schools fell from 114,235 in the year 1920-21 to 99,396 in 1921-22, and to 87,258 in 1922-23. The interior life of schools also began to change. From "Fruits of Labour" and "Self-service" pupils passed to the study of spelling and writing, of reading and of mathematics. A Moscow programme of study for 1923 re-established the old system to some extent. The Scientific Council of Education, with a view to staying this reaction from

new methods, laid down at the end of 1922 the character of work for the next few years.

1923

Then arose the question of the Complex Method. Little by little the Complex took the form of the dialectic method of the study of phenomena. An attempt was made to introduce the elements of the Dalton plan: co-operative ideas came into school life.

In most schools small co-operative stores were organized, as well as *co-operatives de consommation*, which were later to evoke protests from many schoolmasters. Towards the end of 1923 questions of the co-operative organisation of pupils arose in the Press, and of their unification and *entente* in study and work. Then appeared the celebrated General Decree of Teaching (1923), setting a time-limit of ten years for the realisation of general instruction. Commissions were formed which set to work immediately to organise concrete plans for general teaching. The limit (1933) is now not far off, and in some parts of the Republic energetic efforts will have to be made.

1927

This year was marked by the issue in a complete edition of the Complex curricula of the C.S.E. for the study of human activities. Attention was focussed on the teacher's task. The technique of the Complex Method was defined. The practical results of the new method of teaching were collected and determined, and thus it was discovered that the study of human activities was too theoretical, and the question of activities useful to society was raised. The development of the new type of polytechnic schools (for young peasants and apprentices to industry) played a part in consolidating the idea of work useful to society. Some questions still await solution—questions on the kind of activities useful to society in school life, on their scholastic *raison d'être*, on the method of their organisation, on their rôle and value. But the impulse has been given, and in a whole range of schools these activities are practised.

A new edition of programmes of study of activities useful to society was published, to come into force in 1927-1928, and to be carried out in the next four years. The new Complex teaching has completely justified itself, and now, after unavoidable delays, has come the time of precision, alike in the material and in the technique of teaching.

Figures show the spread of education under the Republic, and its recovery from the economic setback of 1921-1924. In the year 1925-1926 there was an increase of 30 per cent in the number of primary pupils over the year 1914-1915, and of 25.5 per cent in the number of secondary pupils.

The cost of education for each person in the R.S.F.S.R. was in 1922-23, 95 copeks, 1923-24, 1 rouble 58 cop, 1924-25, 2r 62c, 1925-26, 3r 52c, 1926-27, 4r 30c.



*Prof S Ivanoff and his Literature Circle at the Experimental School,
Kouisk*



Parents' Council Rural Kindergarten, Kaluga

(In the country, the peasant mothers now beg for Kindergarten. They are just awakening to the double advantage—to the children—to themselves)

Towards International Understanding

A Frensham Heights Experiment

By D. V. Halbach

An eminent Statesman attributed the Great War to it, and stated that it is idle 'merely to make speeches and write essays against this fear, because at present the fear has a real basis. At present each nation has cause for the fear it feels. Each nation has cause to believe that its national life is in peril unless it is able to take the national life of one or more of its foes and at least hopelessly cripple that foe. The causes of fear must be removed, or no matter what peace may be patched up to-day or what new treaties may be negotiated to-morrow, these causes will at some future day bring about the same results, bring about a repetition of this same awful tragedy."

This is the opinion of every intelligent man or woman to-day, and an opinion that is now being echoed by an increasingly large and influential press. Yet in the world at large nationalism is on the offensive. Europe is an armed camp and those who would disarm her must hasten before it is too late.

As educationalists we all believe that the surest and quickest way to secure permanent peace is to give the rising generation the world-wide outlook that dissolves these nationalistic fears, and two of the great principles of our new education are those of tolerance and internationalism. At Frensham Heights we welcome pupils of all nationalities, we ask our foreign visitors to address the school whenever the opportunity occurs, and we continually put all points of view before the children. This term we have undertaken a special international project which we think may interest our readers. Twenty-four of our children have just returned from a school journey to Brussels, which we organised at our half-term holiday in order that we should miss as few school days as possible. The parents of the Decroly School children offered us hospitality, and we, in turn, invited a party of the Decroly children to come to Frensham Heights next summer term. The visit was planned as a means of making individual links between the two schools and nationalities, as a special history project in connection with the Palais Mondial and as a means of stimulating our children to understand the value and necessity of learning modern languages. From the moment we left until our return the children were thrilled by all their new experiences in the larger world, and we believe that they have come back very much enriched by all they have seen and heard. The actual cost per head worked out from between £3 and £4 inclusive for the six days. We travelled second class by both rail and steamer, and made use of the cheapest route in order to prove that it would be quite possible for many schools to organise similar trips to the Continent either during the term or the holidays. It is in the hope of being of service to other schools that we give these details of our first-hand experience.

We left London at 8.40 p.m. and travelled via Harwich and Antwerp. This route is to be thoroughly recommended. Not only is it cheap and comfortable but the night voyage saves valuable school time and the children sleep, and so arrive

quite fresh. A night crossing has also a sense of romance which appeals to young travellers and adds to the general fun. The children were on deck early in the morning and were fascinated by their first sight of Holland and Belgium. The approach to Antwerp up the Scheldt is very delightful. Arrived at Brussels, we were met by some of the children and by the headmistress of the Decroly School, Mlle. Hamaide, who was our guardian angel throughout our stay. We then went out by tram and bus to the school, which is situated in a wooded suburb outside the capital. The Belgian children gave us a warm welcome, entertained us to lunch, showed us their pets and classrooms, sang us songs, and made us speeches, to which one of our boys replied in French. Each Belgian child who was giving hospitality set to work to find his or her visitor and immediately appropriated him or her in the most natural and charming fashion. About 4 o'clock the Decroly children went home and our own boys and girls went with their respective hosts and hostesses. That was a moment of great adventure into the unknown! We collected them all again at school the next morning.

Altogether we spent four whole days in Brussels. Each morning our children assembled at the Decroly School and we then took them off for the day and brought them back to the school headquarters at 4 p.m. in order that they could go home with their hostesses. Our general plan was to concentrate on a special history project each morning at the Palais Mondial, to lunch in the city and to spend the afternoon sightseeing.

M. Otlet, the founder of the Palais Mondial, is a man with a "blazing conviction" in the brotherhood of man. He has a mountain-top vision of the dramatic evolution of humanity and he has struggled all his life against national prejudice in order to build up a pictorial representation of this great conception. The result is the Palais Mondial, a museum which summarises man's progress throughout the ages and which is the direct outcome of one man's life-work. Here is a man who has the courage to live and work for humanity and whose efforts are scorned and frustrated by his own countrymen. True is it indeed that a man is never a prophet in his own time or country! Housed in a large exhibition hall, this remarkable museum is divided into sections which correspond with the epochs of the world's history. In the first room we live again in pre-history. In picture form we view the clustering together of dust particles, the formation of the solar system, the fiery heart of our own world in the making, the earliest ages of life, the arrival of primitive man and his struggles against the Ice Ages. Fascinating models show man's attempt at home-making, his weapons, his endeavours to express himself in art and craft. Egypt, Assyria, Crete, Greece, Rome, and Byzantium each have their own section and each is rich in pictorial, diagrammatic and concrete representations of the social, political and religious life of each period. Then we step into

the Middle Ages, a boy's paradise of model knights, castles, implements of attack and torture! The Renaissance section shows man's quickened progress in all branches of knowledge and his awakened intellect which leads him forward in science, art and religion. So gradually we reach modern times, the Great War and its aftermath, to-day's pressing problems, and, too, some suggestions of their solutions. Another department of the museum deals with the different countries as separate units, and one is able to stroll round the world at one's own leisure.

We were privileged by the attention M. Olet gave us, and especially by his series of talks on the rise and fall of civilisations from prehistoric periods until to-day. After each morning's lecture the children scattered, and each concentrated on his or her own particular line of interest. Two or three children spent all four mornings in the ancient history sections, while several of the younger ones chose to study habitation and examined the models of huts and houses from primitive times up to the Middle Ages. One boy concentrated on land and sea transport. Two others selected the discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. They copied and translated diagrams, sketched the ships and enjoyed all the pictorial subject-matter to be found in that particular section.

Each morning widened their conception of history and stretched their minds to embrace the whole story of man's progress. It was a new experience for all of us to listen to a Belgian's opinion on the greatness and weakness of our own Empire, and to hear an unbiased judgment on our actions in China, India and Africa.

We found the children appreciative of the beauties of the Belgian capital. They revelled in the archi-

tectural glories of the Grande Place and were impressed by the stateliness of the Palais de Justice. Mlle. Hamaide conducted us through the old narrow streets of the poorer quarters, where we contacted the real Belgian populace, and we spent one afternoon in the picture galleries looking at both the old and new schools of Flemish art. One of the greatest of all events was a shopping expedition. The children changed their own money and then bought cards, little pieces of Belgian lace and other souvenirs.

Our four days passed all too quickly, and when we left, Mlle. Hamaide and a number of the Belgian children accompanied us to Antwerp. They watched us go on board, and as we moved off down the river we gave them our school shout, which startled both the passengers on deck and the officials and porters on shore! But it was a spontaneous appreciation of all the kindness we had received among our Belgian friends, and it was certainly a pledge of international friendliness and understanding as between the children of two nations.

We feel our first school journey abroad has been a success for which our thanks are due to Mlle. Hamaide, the Belgian parents, M. Olet and his colleagues. Friendships have been formed and our horizon has been extended. We realise the existence of the Belgian nation across the water and we have very happy recollections of Belgian hospitality, culture and courtesy, and, too, of Belgian cookery. When opportunities are given to our children to contact the children of other nations, racial understanding and sympathy will become a reality. The world's youth will then disentangle our problems, for they will recognise and declare war to be a crime, a barbarism not to be tolerated in any way or at any time.

NOTES

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

Bristol Branch

Fresh interest and support have recently been gained for the Bristol Branch of the New Education Fellowship. During October the Joint Secretary (Miss Dorothy Matthews) spent two weeks in the city, lectures were given at the Venture Club, the University Women's Settlement, Duncan House, Redland Collegiate School, the Practical Psychology Club and the Folk House, where Saturday afternoon and evening sessions had been arranged on "The Foundations of a New Education" and "The Education of Parents". A well-attended public meeting was held in the Colonial Institute with Mr. J. H. Nicholson, M.A. (Director of Extra-Mural Studies of Bristol University) in the chair. Dr. Ludford Freeman, the Director of Education, was represented by Mr. J. G. Finlayson, M.A., who proposed the vote of thanks to the Chairman. The meetings were generously reported in the Press. The following have agreed to act as members of the two committees that have been formed—

Executive Committee

Miss S. Adams (Redland Collegiate School)
Miss Barnard (Bishop Road Central School, Bishopston).
Miss F. Bradfield (North Street Junior)

Miss K. Bradfield (St. Barnabas Boys, City Road)

Mrs. Norman Brown.

Miss J. E. Keen (Fairfield Secondary School)

Miss G. Shaw (St. Michael's Infants)

Mr. W. R. Straker (Workers' Educational Association)

Chairman

Mr. T. Evans, M.A. (Queen Elizabeth's Hospital).

Joint Secretaries

Miss Alice Wilson (Duncan House, Clifton)

Mr. E. A. Hatherley (Queen Elizabeth's Hospital).

General Committee

Mr. M. H. Carré, M.A. (The University)

Miss Kathleen Orpen (Women's University Settlement)

Miss J. Smart (Fishponds Training College)

Mr. Paul Sturge, M.A. (The Folk House)

Rev. E. C. Urwin, M.A., B.D. (President, Bristol Free Church Federation)

Miss G. C. Whitwell (Education Department of the University)

Dr. Helen Wodehouse, M.A. (Education Department of the University).

Manchester Branch

The Manchester Branch now consists of about 40 persons (members, associates and subscribers) and

held its Inaugural Meeting on Tuesday, October 18, at the City Training College, when a good representative audience gave a hearty welcome to Mrs B Ensor, who spoke with inspiration on "Education for World Peace." Miss E S Barrett, Principal of the City Training College and Vice-President of the Group, took the Chair in the unavoidable absence of the President, Professor Findlay, who is studying Esperanto on the Continent. A number of senior students from the Training College gave valuable assistance with the refreshments and in selling magazines, etc.

Other features for the autumn and winter are —
November 2nd — A lecture by Mr Wm Platt on "Young Children's Own Music," with Miss Allen (who is Dr Carroll's senior assistant as musical adviser to the Manchester Education Committee) in the Chair.

November 19th — Exhibition of Children's Art (British and Viennese work) at the Friends' Institute. A Dalcroze Eurhythmic Demonstration is to be given in the afternoon by Miss Gwendoline Holt, using children of the Ladybarn House School, and Mr S Maltby, M.A., M Ed., Head of the Friends' School, Penketh, Warrington, is to speak in the evening on his impressions of the Locarno Conference. Councillor Wright Robinson, Deputy Chairman of the Manchester Education Committee, is to take the Chair.

December 7th — A lecture by Mrs C H Nicholls, of the Garden School, Missenden, on "Co-operation in Education." The Chair is to be taken by Mr George Sutherland, Principal of Dalton Hall.

Liverpool Group

The Liverpool Group of the New Education Fellowship now numbers 21, members and associates. The Group, though small, is distinctly keen, and we hope that more interested members will join. The programme for the Winter Session has proved a most interesting one.

The Exhibition of Viennese and Scottish children's works of art held in October was of great interest and educational value. It was most fortunate that Mrs Beatrice Ensor could give us an afternoon talk on the creative faculties in children and freedom in education through the expression of their own visions in colour. In a short yet brilliant talk Mrs Ensor delighted her small audience.

In October we had the great fortune to secure Mr Maltby, who spoke on "Some Impressions of the Locarno Conference on New Education." In an informal address he drew a most vivid word picture of the Conference which admitted those less fortunate ones, who were unable to be present, into the real spirit of the Locarno Conference.

In November Dr Alice Hutchison is speaking to the Group and interested friends on "Fear in Children."

Scottish N.E.F.

The winter session opened with a series of courses for teachers in Dalcroze Eurhythmics, given during September by Miss Grace McLearn, A.R.C.M., in Dundee, Dunfermline and Kirkcaldy. Fifty-two teachers in all availed themselves of this opportunity, and such fine progress was made in the time that we feel we should pay more attention to this delightful but sound method of "freeing the teacher." A lecture on the subject given in Glasgow on October 15th by Miss McLearn was followed by a course

for teachers there. In October Miss Margaret McMillan, C.B.E., spoke on "The Open-Air Nursery School," in Dunfermline, Dundee, St Andrews, Glasgow, Clydebank, Alloa and Edinburgh. Her last lecture, at Falkirk, had unfortunately to be given up as she was summoned by wire to a meeting of the London County Council, her place at Falkirk being taken by Miss Agnes Pirie Scotland is at last waking up to the importance of this subject, and it is hoped that the plans now being made in several centres for work along the lines of the Deptford Nursery School will come to good fruition.

A fine syllabus of six lectures has been published and widely circulated by the Glasgow Branch, with an interesting extract from the lecture given by M Jacques Dalcroze at the Montreux Conference.

Three talks by our President, Mr Neil Snodgrass, were broadcast to all stations of the Northern Area in October, on (1) "Individual Methods in the School," (2) "The Dalton Plan," and (3) "The Winnetka Technique."

The very important course of lectures on "Individual Apparatus for Infants," given by Miss Edith Luke at the St Andrews Summer School in July, is already bearing good fruit, and many infant teachers among the large numbers who attended her classes are now putting her methods into practice in their schools.

The Children's Art Exhibition (British and Viennese), which has been shown in the principal English centres during the autumn, will visit Dundee in January and February, and Aberdeen shortly afterwards.

The New Ideals in Education Conference

will be held at Cambridge, 9-14th April. Secretary: Miss de Lissa, 44, The Avenue, Gypsy Hill, London, S.E.19.

Congress of the International Bureau of Education, 17-18 August

The first General Meeting of the Bureau, held at Geneva, was attended by 50 members from 21 countries. Any reader who would like the report of this interesting gathering should apply for it to the New Education Fellowship office.

The London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics

is seeking funds to enable it to buy the building known as the Hampstead Conservatoire for use as the headquarters of the Dalcroze School in London. Particulars from The Dalcroze Society, 17, Gower Street, London, W.C.1.

South African Principal Seeks Post

The Principal of a Preparatory Technical School, a large day school attended by 650 boys and girls, wishes to spend some time in Europe, but cannot do this unless he can find a post. If any school has a post to offer for a year or more will it communicate with the N.E.F., 11, Tavistock Square, London. The enquirer has a B.A. degree of the University of S.A. and has twelve years' teaching experience.

International Camp for School Children

The international gathering of school children, of which notice was given last spring in the *New Era*, took place this summer at the Château de Bierville, 30 miles south of Paris. There were assembled 50 children of each of the three nations—French, German and English—boys and girls from 12-17

years of age. The objects of the gathering were general comradeship and the constant use of the three languages.

The results of the sixteen days' intercourse were most encouraging. The children at once showed interest in one another, and quickly began to communicate in any of the three languages. Work groups were formed, in each of which there were children of the three nationalities, and they met together every morning, when, for two hours, they read, learnt the words of songs, or prepared short sketches, scenes, or charades. There was a large assembly room with a stage, and here the united gathering met each evening for an entertainment given by the children themselves and consisting of the work prepared in the morning classes. There was keen competition for the places in the evenings' programmes, and preference was always given to any company offering something in a foreign tongue. There was a delightful selfconsciousness about these performances—the children struggled with the languages and did not mind making mistakes; their efforts were met most sympathetically, and a real pleasure was evinced when a group acquitted itself well in a foreign language. We even got to one-minute impromptu speeches in a foreign tongue. In these the Germans, speaking English, were perhaps the most successful, but all efforts were warmly applauded and there was no lack of volunteers. Music, singing and folk-dances of the different nations were popular pastimes. Very quickly we had all the 150 children singing songs in the three languages, and we added to our repertoire daily. We had quite a good orchestra—six violins, one cello, one lute, one flute, two penny whistles and a piano. Our music staff arranged parts for these heterogeneous instruments, and among other things they performed Handel's Largo, a Scotch reel, and a carol by Gustav Holst.

The afternoons were devoted to games, sports,

and excursions. By charabanc we visited Orleans and Fontainebleau, and on bicycles we made sketching parties to Etampes, five miles from our centre.

Cricket, football and organised sports—jumping, running and obstacle racing, were popular with all the children. There was a swimming pool, with concrete bottom, under the trees in the park, and bathing went on gaily each day during fixed hours. Aquatic sports were immensely successful, the Germans and English specially vying with one another for the supremacy.

We had a devoted band of teachers and helpers. About 20 went from England, including Mr Cyril Thorne, of Ackworth School, Yorkshire, with a contingent of boys, and Mr and Mrs Franklin, of Christ's Hospital, Horsham.

The French children were under the leadership of M and Mme Polé, professors of modern languages in the College of Blois; the Germans from the north were led by Herr Roters, of Recklinghausen, and from the south by Dr Emil Steiger and Herr Dorsner, of Freiburg.

It is obvious that in so short a time as these children were together very little progress can be made in acquiring a foreign language, but real interest can be aroused, and the living languages become an actuality. Thus brought together, the boys and girls not only learn to fraternise, but there is a possibility that real friendships may be formed. The children see how much we all have in common—how many of our interests are common interests: all the great men and women in Literature, Art or Science belong to us all—our poets, writers, musicians, painters, are above nationality—they are our common pride and heritage. That the children who were with us at Bierville felt something of all this, that they entered with us into this spirit of a common spiritual heritage, we earnestly and thankfully believe—(Miss Gilpin, The Hall School, Weybridge.)

BOOK REVIEWS

New York at School. By JOSEPHINE CHASE. Public Education Assoc. 8 West 40th St., New York.

It is always a matter of supreme interest to the genuine educationist to learn what others are doing, and how they are doing it. "New York at School," should, accordingly, make a strong appeal, particularly to those who are denied the opportunity of studying the educational system of New York on the spot. The book gives a comprehensive description of the work of the schools, of the principles on which they are organised, and of the aims the administrators have in view. In simple, non-technical language you have described the work of the Kindergartens, the Elementary Schools, the Junior High Schools, the High Schools, and the Vocational Schools. These resemble closely our own types—any difference there is largely one of nomenclature, but when we come to the methods of classification, etc., there is much that we can learn from the American book. Americans appear to recognise, more than we do, the vital importance of maintaining contact with the home. In order to learn the needs of each pupil a kindergarten teacher visits the homes and makes the acquaintance of the mothers.

She holds mothers' meetings and forms Mothers' Clubs, and in this way smooths the child's transition from the home to the school. Then again there are Visiting Teachers, whose sole function is to link the home with the school. These Visiting Teachers are experienced teachers and trained psychologists, and it is their duty to visit the parents of "problem" children whose difficulties cannot be solved in the classroom. In this way the cause of the child's difficulties is often discovered, and the parents' and the pupils' co-operation with the school is secured.

Americans appear to appreciate, too, more than we do, the need for experimenting. Certain selected schools have been utilised for experimenting with intelligence and achievement tests, with Dalton Plans and Project Methods, with courses for the sub-normal and super-normal—indeed, with every phase of school life.

As a result of an experiment on a large scale, extending over a number of years, most of the Elementary and Junior High School pupils are now classified according to ability rather than chronological age. The value of a system whereby pupils are dealt with according to their capacities and

needs, rather than according to a chaotic system which has no regard to native differences in mental capacity, is no longer in doubt so far as New York is concerned.

The first term is spent in studying the child, not in teaching him. Facts about him are discovered—his disposition, his home environment—in order to avoid, as far as possible and as early as possible, maladjustment. In other words, an attempt is made to adjust the child at the beginning instead of waiting until untold harm has been done.

The use of intelligence and achievement tests puts them in a strong position to deal with the child who tends to diverge from the normal—the bright child, the retarded child, and the over-age child. All these are specially catered for—the bright pupils in "Rapid Advancement" classes, the retarded pupils in "Opportunity" classes, and the over-age pupils in "Adjustment" classes. The object of the "Rapid Advancement" class is to enable bright pupils to complete the 7th, 8th and 9th years of the Junior High School in two years instead of three. The criticism that might be urged against a policy of acceleration is that it tends to produce a one-sided pupil—one in whom the mental development has outpaced the development of the body and the character, but when one considers that the gain aimed at is limited to one year, there does not appear to be much force in it. It is certainly an improvement on the practice of "skipping" a class—the usual method of acceleration with us. It might, however, be an advantage were the gain spread over the whole school life of the pupil instead of concentrating it in the last two years. In any case, whatever the risks may be, they are small compared with risks of running a gifted pupil with a success too easily earned.

The retardation problem is tackled in the early stages of the child's school life by means of "Opportunity" classes. Into these classes are drafted pupils who for various causes—illness, frequent change of school, etc.—have fallen behind, and require re-adjustment. Because of the small numbers it is possible to give them special attention, and when they have made up the lost ground they are re-drafted into their normal grades. The point to be noted is that retardation is dealt with in its early stages, when a cure is possible, and not delayed until matters have gone too far. With us this type of class is usually referred to as an "Adjustment" class for the reason that it is adjusting the pupil to normal accomplishment.

What they term "Adjustment" class, again, caters for the dull normal child. It is so named because its object is to adjust the child to his or her future occupation, and corresponds to our "Over-age" class, providing a curriculum predominantly practical in nature.

Other chapters deal with classes for "Physically Handicapped Children," "Special Schools for Behaviour Problems," "Vacation Schools," and "Continuation Schools." Indeed, no problem that is likely to face the educator is neglected. Its general aim is to give parents and the public generally an outline of what the schools are doing. It accordingly makes no claim to be critical, nor does it attempt to assess the success or otherwise of the system. It can be strongly recommended to all those who are interested in new movements in education. R. H.

ABC of Jung's Psychology. By JOAN CORRIE Kegan

Paul 3/6

"This little book is not intended to be an exposition of modern psychology. It is an attempt to place before the educated layman the principal psychological views and theories of Dr Jung, of Zurich, in simple and untechnical language, his own published works being, for the most part, too scientific and abstruse for the general reader who is not a psychologist."

It must be acknowledged that the aim which the author has thus set before herself has been admirably accomplished. The little book is very readable and interesting, the clear and concise language enables the reader to grasp the trend of thought that underlies the principles evolved by this eminent psychologist. There are four chapters—"The Mind and Its Structure," "The Mind and Its Functions," "The Mind and Its Disturbances," and "The Significance of Dreams." The work was read in manuscript by Dr Jung himself.

The effect of reading the "A B C" is a desire to peruse Jung's own books to which such an interesting and attractive introduction is here provided. We are grateful to Joan Corrie for bringing within nearer reach of the ordinary reader the wisdom of one of the greatest of modern psychologists.

Psychology of Elementary School Subjects H B

Reed Ginn, 8/6

The foundation for the teaching and learning of elementary school subjects has changed from experience and opinion to experiment and science. The psychology deals with the formation of habits that give skill in their acquirement and all factors influencing those habits.

The factors may be (1) Native—brightness, sex, mental age, maturity, defects, etc.—which depend upon heredity, are limiting, and beyond the teacher's control. (2) Acquired—in accordance with (a) The Law of Repetition (or exercise)—practice makes perfect; (b) The Law of Association (or meaning)—increasing the ease of learning, (c) The Law of Satisfaction—making an activity satisfying.

Reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, language, history, geography, are analysed along these lines.

G M

Modern Psychology and Education. By MARY

STUART, M.A. and E. C. OARDEN, M.A., with foreword by T. RAYMONT, M.A. Kegan Paul, 7/6 net.

This is a textbook of psychology for students in Training Colleges and Adult Evening Classes. It is a most readable book with as few as possible technical terms, and should appeal to the educated public at large, who desire to have the essentials of psychology—so popular in these days—presented to them in a clear, interesting and scientific manner.

After an excellent foreword, preface and introduction, the book is divided into three parts dealing with (1) the direction of mind, (2) the tools of mind, and (3) the conduct of mind.

At the end of each chapter is a bibliography and also a remarkably good questionnaire for class discussion or self-examination. This latter, dealing not only with the substance of the chapter but also branching out to points naturally leading from the context, deserves special emphasis, as rendering the book much more valuable from the reader's standpoint.

Too, there is an essay question-list numbering 40 topics and a most complete bibliography—an essential factor in a scientific book.

For original treatment, interesting data and scholarly arrangement one cannot do better than peruse this book, and the pithy quotations, particularly as chapter-headings, render the book a delight and serve to fix the clear-cut context in one's mind.

J E T S

The Psychology of Childhood, Normal and Abnormal.

By MARY SCHARLIEB Constable, 6/-

Much can of course be learnt about children from a woman of Dame Mary Scharlieb's experience and goodheartedness—experience as mother, doctor and magistrate. But when you want information on psychology do go to an expert in psychology for it! One feels in reading this book that it is rooted and grounded in the old-fashioned ideas with only a glimmer of light let through from the newer teaching and what it has revealed concerning the working of a child's mind.

The book seeks to help parents to attach blame fairly and with discretion—but still to attach blame (see page 36). It seeks to help them to punish their children adequately and wisely—but oh! the dreary picture it gives of the old regime of constant tears and punishment. One longs for the emphasis to be laid on creative, free and joyous activity for the child that will lead to self-discipline and self-management after the needful external guidance of the first few years of life.

Surely a psychologist should teach us how to use all the energies and re-direct them into better channels if they go astray, and should not give us phrases like "many of the faults that call for repression during adolescence."

We might perhaps give this book to those at the beginning of a better understanding of childhood, but it will have little value for progressive thinkers.

Educate Your Child. HERBERT MCKAY Oxford

University Press, 2/6 net

Truly the best things are often done up in small parcels, as the proverb tells us. Herbert McKay, in his slender volume, well within the purse of all, has given something that many other weighty volumes entirely lack the *real point of view of the child*, and not the customary fiction that most writers on this subject present, doubtless in absolutely good faith, as being the juvenile attitude to life and its surroundings.

This writer has taken the trouble to stoop down and once more view the world from the eye-level of the child and tells what he sees in simple, straightforward language, which avoids the pitfalls of sentimentality on the one hand, and on the other the wish to bludgeon the parents who do not do the same thing. Nor has the book the intention of shocking parents, thinking them in need of a healthy tonic.

With amazing co-operation of observation and recollection of his own boyhood the author sets forth the case of the child with clear accuracy, pointing out that the world is arranged for the adults' convenience and that the child often finds disappointment and failure because of the inappropriateness of the material or tools with which he has to experiment.

We find in the book matter that we know in theory and yet forget to practise. Delightful sketches of child experiences adorn its pages and pithy reminders of our own shortcomings where our efforts

to educate children are concerned, will lead us from chapter to chapter to smile at our own blindness and crass stupidity in simple things that are the common knowledge of all children.

"I wonder why they keep throwing stones at me," said the man on the pedestal.

"You make yourself so conspicuous," said the man in the street. "Unless you can afford a pedestal the height of Lord Nelson's, you are not safe on the top of it. Nothing looks so dissipated as a halo awry."

This is a sample of the good things to be found in this half-crown's worth. But it is useless to embark upon quotations because one would like to make use thus of half the little book.

MARY CHADWICK.

The Little One's Log. By EVA BRLEIGH Foreword by DR ERIC PRITCHARD. Illustrated by ERNEST H. SHEPARD Partridge, 7/6

Most mothers would enjoy keeping baby's record in this charmingly illustrated book, and would find help in the simply given directions.

Mention is made of the need for regularity and absolute cleanliness, of the wisdom of leaving baby alone for short periods in his play-pen, of allowing the child "to get up as soon as he wakes in the morning, however early this may be."

"Between the second and third year . . . much naughtiness or nervousness is caused . . . through keeping the child too much of a baby and giving him too little opportunity to develop his growing powers of body and mind." How true, but even today how seldom realised! B L

I Want to be Happy. By WILLIAM PLATT. Methuen, 3/6

It is difficult to say the title of this little book without giving it its song rhythm, which would lead one to expect rather the cheap "Guide-to-Success" attitude than a sane treatment of the psychology of happiness, if we were not familiar with other of the author's books.

It is, however, an interesting, readable, thoroughly sound study of happiness with suggestive guidance for the acquisition of the happy temperament.

"It is the sympathetic temperament that is the happy one," says Mr Platt. "The happy man is he who sympathetically understands his fellow-creatures, who does not judge them harshly, who calls out and responds to all that is best in them."

He explains how a friend may attract in certain ways and repel in others. "Perhaps he or she has some worrying habit such as boasting . . . You may get increasingly irritated by this habit till the friction set up becomes almost intolerable. Then you point out the fact to your other friend, the psychologist, and he says, 'Ah, but it is a very interesting instance of the *Inferiority Complex*.'"

Once it is seen that this is an Inferiority Complex at work, surely the trait will be less annoying, because in understanding it we shall learn to forgive it. The book shows how the sex instincts and the basic emotions may be harnessed so as best to contribute their share to a man's happiness.

In conclusion one could hardly do better than quote fully Mr. Platt's advice with regard to acquiring a better understanding of one's fellow-men, which if followed would surely lead to a happier state of affairs—"Select in your mind some friend who has a fault that jars on you, set yourself, deliberately, to

discover, in your own mind, what lies at the base or origin of this supposed fault, and what lies at the base of your special aversion to it. If you are a schoolmaster, proceed similarly with any pupil who irritates you. If you are a husband or wife, do the same with your life-mate. Try to dissolve the source of friction by understanding it." F M S

Plant Autographs. By Sir J. C. Bose, F.R.S. Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., 7/6

This is a non-technical summary of Prof. Bose's researches into plant physiology, using the technique that is employed in similar investigations into the reactions of animal tissue to varying stimuli, i.e., electric shocks, drugs, light, heat, wounds, etc.

For this purpose Prof. Bose found it necessary to devise a series of instruments of extreme delicacy and accuracy, one of which is capable of magnifying movements 100 million times and recording rates of growth of one thousandth millionth of an inch a second. Incidentally, these instruments established his reputation among European scientists, to whom precision in dealing with metric quantities is of first importance.

In the course of his researches the Professor localised and isolated plant nerves, established that the ascent of sap is maintained by a propulsive power having its origin in a pulsating layer of tissue—the "heart" of the plant, and discovered the two opposite powers of stimulation and repression possessed by the same drug, according as it is administered in small or large quantities.

His oriental outlook enables Prof. Bose to weave deftly together the similarity of the reactions in plant and animal tissue (and in some cases in mineral matter) into a hypothesis that essentially the same life animates the three kingdoms of nature.

It is certainly a book which should be read not only by those who wish to keep their knowledge of scientific progress up to date, but by the general reader, who will find it as fascinating as a good novel. L. C. S.

Pitch Games. Words and Music by LOUISE DE RUSETTE. Curwen and Sons, 3/6 net.

Those who have seen and heard Miss de Rusette with her classes of little ones know well the joy and sympathy of her method. This latest book of hers is just a bright, clever attempt to teach the first things about pitch and scale by means of ingenious games. Miss de Rusette has effectively concealed the didactic purpose, or in other words, hidden the powder in the jam. Words and melodies run trippingly and harmonies are simple and appropriate. A useful little book. W. PLATT.

Education for a Changing Civilisation. By W. H. KILPATRICK, Columbia University. Macmillan, 4/6.

Professor Kilpatrick's researches into educational problems are always welcomed by the teachers and all interested in the forward movement in education. This book is arresting in its treatment, and convincing in its conclusions. It is arranged in three sections, dealing with the nature of our changing civilisation, the consequent demands on education, and the last section—the most important—which deals with the changed education.

The material advance in our civilisation threatens to outrun our social and moral ability to grapple with the new problems, and Professor Kilpatrick empha-

sises the development of a correlative educational system, which shall take this into account, or he fears that civilisation itself will be threatened.

In the second section the central fact is that our children should think for themselves. This is to be accomplished by science, development of the critical faculty, and specialisation, this latter to be safeguarded by the cultivation of many-sided interests connecting life as a whole. Breadth of view is not incompatible with specialisation, nor co-operation with individualisation. It is the co-ordination of these two aspects with which education is concerned. The waning of authority postulates a better morality, the decline in family life places upon the school the responsibility of dealing with real life experiences. The rising generation must be prepared for the problems of the unknown future.

The changed education concerns itself with the practice of self-expression, learning by experience, and the resultant building up of the emotional and volitional character. The new curriculum thus will concern itself with a succession of school experiences. The teacher must co-operate in the joint work of the philosopher, scientist, teacher and pupil. Stimulation, suggestion and direction must be adjusted to the individual needs of the pupil's growing character. The goal of education is to continue and enrich life by better thoughts and acts, and this in turn is education in life and for life, marked by continual growth.

The book is well indexed and should be read by all who desire freshness of outlook and breadth of vision in dealing with educational ideals, principles and practice. J. E. T. S.

Disarmament, or How the Cake was Shared. A

League of Nations Playlet. By F. W. PARROTT. Braithwaite and Sons, Kirby Stephen, 7d net.

All interested in the work of the League of Nations Union will sympathise with the purpose of this little play—to show the wastefulness and futility of war. B. L.

Errors in School. by Sir JOHN ADAMS, M.A., B.Sc., LL.D., London University of London Press, Ltd., 6s.

This is a book devoted to the discovery and correction of errors in school, as forming a fundamental part of the teacher's work. It is written in a very practical style and deals with the aesthetic side of error, its nature, the tendency to error, and the building up of the inner world of our pupils. This last point is emphasised and is deserving of close attention. It deals largely with the influence of the subconscious on the conscious mind. The interaction of the inner and outer worlds of the pupil demands careful consideration from the teacher.

The bridge between the two worlds can be made by the careful manipulation of language. Error often creeps in because of the misuse of words on the part of the teacher. The pupil's vocabulary is limited, and this limitation should be borne in mind, or looseness and error will result if the teacher does not take every care to ensure clearness of content when introducing new matter.

Sir John then discusses not only the cure, but the prevention, of error, in perhaps what is the best chapter in the book. A new word (to us) is introduced in "Pneumometry," or the use of a fictitious instrument—the pneumometer—for the detection of error. Two excellent chapters follow on the treat-

ment of error, and the book closes with a capital general survey and a copious index. We heartily recommend this book to teachers and others

J. E. T. S.

Before Books. By CAROLINE PRATT and JESSIE STANTON. Adelphi Co., New York, \$2

This is a record of work done in the City and Country School, New York, and represents work with four- to six-year-old pupils, children of pre-school age, hence the title. The inception of the school was to provide a field for experimental practice. There is an excellent preliminary chapter on "Pedagogy" as a creative art, and the keynote is struck as follows—"Pedagogy has hitherto regarded the pupil as a product, but as we are dealing with a human being who will himself become an artist, a producer, we cannot regard him as a product, we may influence him, but we cannot produce him." The records of programmes, progress, and the appendices dealing with material used, staff, building, etc., form a most illuminating and complete survey of work with young children

J. E. T. S.

Adventuring with Twelve-Year-Olds. By LLELA STOTT. Edited by CAROLINE PRATT Greenberg, New York, \$2

This is a quaintly illustrated book dealing with records of a group of twelve-year-olds in the City and Country School, New York. The chapters are in the main built up out of notes dealing with the actual activities of the children, and deal with "Play Experiences," "Training in Technique," and the "Organisation of Information." Of the ten chapters, where all is good, it is difficult to select, but the two dealing with History and Geography, and Dramatic work, are particularly illuminating and practical

J. E. T. S.

Lino Cuts—How to Make and Use Them. St Christopher Press, Letchworth, Herts (free on application)

The examples of lino cuts in this useful little book have been taken from the workshops of four modern schools, and the St Christopher Press has reproduced them in most beautiful form. The booklet shows the effect of different linoes printed in coloured inks on paper of varying tints. The text gives some valuable hints on lino cutting. The St Christopher Press is to be highly congratulated

Good Eyesight, Our Birthright. By K. BESWICK 64, Brook Street, London, W

This is a booklet of 58 pp dealing with the preservation of eyesight. The four chapters comprise the "Psychology of Sight," "Eyesight at School," "General Principles," and "Practical Suggestions." The principal contention is that glasses can be dispensed with as they do not relieve strain, which is mental, they relieve the sight temporarily, and then

from time to time have to be adjusted. The suggestion is made that the strain should be removed and then the result of the strain—imperfect sight—will be removed also. Remedial and preventive exercises are given, and the reader can apply the practical test in order to see if the theory is workable.

J. E. T. S.

"Hear My Prayer" (Mendelssohn) and the **"Nightingales"** (Oxted). His Master's Voice (London).

Two very excellent records suitable for the school-room

Broadcasting in Schools.

The British Broadcasting Corporation, Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2, has sent us six excellent booklets intended to be used by the schools which follow the broadcasting programmes arranged especially for schools during the autumn of 1927. Besides giving a synopsis of the talks to be broadcast, they give suggestions for work and reading to follow the talks. The booklets are as follows—*Elementary French* (especially designed for Central Schools), by E. M. Stéphan; *Boys and Girls of the Middle Ages*, by Rhoda Power; *Speech and Language*, by Lloyd James; *Out-of-Doors Nature Study Lessons*, by Eric Parker; *Elementary Music*, by Sir Walford Davies; *Special Talks to Secondary Schools*

Art Re-Productions.

While in Brussels we discovered a very fine series of black and white reproductions of the Old Masters and of Architecture. They would form a valuable addition to art and history equipment. In the series there are 1,000 prints of the Italian masters, 500 prints of Greek and Roman sculpture, 500 of the History of Architecture, 500 of the German, Dutch and Flemish Schools, and 140 of various artists of the Middle Ages. Prices, 40 centimes each print, or 100 prints for 35 francs. Further information from Service Educatif des Musées Royaux, Palais du Cinquantenaire (Ave des Nerviens), Brussels

Pictorial Education. Evans Bros, Ltd. Monthly, 1/-

The value of this work is undoubted as a lesson supplement. The photographs are clearly and artistically produced, and of such a size as to be useful in the classroom. The difficulty, in the teaching of such subjects as geography, of giving to young children any idea of vastness can to a certain extent be overcome by the use of good photographs. The same applies to Nature study, particularly in towns where it is frequently nearly impossible to obtain specimens. A fault to be found, however, is the fact that it has been necessary to print both sides of the paper, meaning that all the plates cannot be in use at any one time

Volunteers Wanted

The Children's Care Committees of St. Pancras and other parts of London ask for volunteers to support their efforts on behalf of school children. They aim at securing for every child the things essential to healthy development and a fair start in life.

The scope is so wide that there is work for all

Even one afternoon a week given regularly is of value. There is opportunity for those who like clerical work indoors or the organisation of a committee, and for those to whom personal contact with children and their parents makes an appeal. Experience is not essential.

(Please write to the District Organiser, 7, Amphill Square, N.W.1)

ESPERANTO

The Locarno Conference, so remarkably successful in many ways, has somehow failed in the matter of languages. It would be out of place to discuss the question here generally. Many members of the Locarno Conference have been deeply interested in the possibilities of Esperanto as an international auxiliary language for occasions like our world conferences, and a number of them have pledged themselves to make at least such a study of Esperanto as will enable them to *understand* it when it will be spoken on some occasions at the 1929 Conference in Denmark.

The *New Era* has asked the Chairman of the Locarno Conference to prepare an Esperanto page for each of the numbers of our periodical which will appear until July, 1929 (seven numbers in all).

It is to be a graduated course specially intended for English-speaking people interested in New Education. After an introductory paragraph on pronunciation, short Esperanto texts are given. They have been prepared so as to apply the few rules of grammar and derivation which will be given each time. The content has been chosen so as to be of interest to teachers. Only those words have been translated which cannot be understood off hand by Britshers.

We shall be glad to receive any suggestions and comments bearing on this matter.

Some of our readers will probably find a course with one lesson every three months too slow for their taste. If they apply to the *British Esperanto Association*, 142, *High Holborn, London, W C 1*, they will receive all information about text books, courses, Esperanto groups, and so on. The Association supplies for 1d a *Key to Esperanto*, a very useful little dictionary, with introductory information

PRONUNCIATION

Every letter in an Esperanto word is sounded, each letter has only one, and always the same sound, no matter whether the letter appears at the beginning, middle, or at the end of the word.

The accent, in Esperanto words, is always on the last syllable but one angla, kapabla, konferenco, diam. kontraŭo

In the following list the accent is shown by block letters

a	is pronounced like "a" in the word "father"	al, to, <i>alia</i> , other, <i>la</i> , the
c	like "ts" in the word "pits" or "tsar"	celo, am, <i>konferenco</i> , conference
ĉ	like "ch" in the word "church"	ĉiu, each, <i>ĉiam</i> , always, <i>ĉie</i> , everywhere
e	like "e" in the word "met"	esti, to be, <i>enketo</i> , enquiry, <i>en</i> , in
g	like "g" in the word "go"	<i>angla</i> , English; <i>pedagogia</i> , pedagogical
ĝ	like "g" in the word "George"	<i>ĝi</i> , it.
i	like "e" in the word "me"	ili, they, <i>mi</i> , I; <i>li</i> , he; <i>ni</i> , we; <i>vi</i> , you
j	like "y" in the word "year"	jaro, year, <i>jam</i> , already
ĵ	like "s" in the word "pleasure"	<i>ĵurnalo</i> , newspaper.
o	like "o" in the word "for"	oni, one (pronoun); <i>nova</i> , new
r	like "rr" in the word "terror"	<i>raporti</i> , to report
s	like "s" in the word "see"	<i>se</i> , if, <i>sed</i> , but
ŝ	like "sh" in the word "shoe"	<i>ŝi</i> , she, <i>ŝati</i> , to like
u	like "u" in the word "rule"	<i>kiu</i> , who, which, <i>instrui</i> , to teach
z	like "s" in the word "use"	<i>uzi</i> , to use

Other letters as in English.

In the syllable "à" and "è" there are not two sounds, but only one, by the shortening of "u" (as in Italian); *baldaù*, soon, *kontraù*, against, opposite

N.B —The 5 sounds in "yaroy" (y-a-r-o-y).

Take care to pronounce the words as you read them, it will help you greatly recognize at once the sense of *gogo*, *jaro*, if you sound them. For instance, you will

Substantives end in " o " : *fakto*, a fact; *progreso*, *rezulto*, *studio*

Adjectives end in "A" *fakta, actual, speciala, latina, kapabla*

Adverbs end in "е": *fakte*, as a matter of fact, *relative*, *ekzemple*, ofte

Verbs: infinitive ends in "i" : *konstat, rimarki.*
present " " "as" *li diras, vi instruas, ili studas*

Substantives and adjectives in the accusative (complement of the verb without preposition) end in "n". oni instruas esperanton kaj aliajn lingvojn

Every root lends itself to all derivations: *skribi*, to write, *skribo*, writing, *skriba*, written, *skriptory*; *skribe*, in writing.

Ni vidas ke, kiam oni instruas esperanton al infanoj, ili fakte ĝin lernas, ili post relative ne longa tempo scias ĝin. Ni insistas pri tiu punkto. Kiam oni instruas alian lingvon, ekzemple: germanan, anglan, francan, latinan,—la infanoj, ofte eĉ post longa studo, ne scias ĝin, ne kapablas ĝin uzi. Tio estas fakto, ni devas ĝin konstati. Kontraŭe oni rimarkas, ke ĉie, kie oni instruas esperanton al infanoj, du horojn en ĉiu semajno, ili post du jaroj bone scias ĝin. Jam post unu jaro ili estas kapablaj kompreni kion ili legas kaj korespondi pri la temoj kiuj interesas ilin.

<i>pri</i>	about	<i>kiam</i>	when
<i>sci</i>	to know	<i>instrui</i>	to teach
<i>eĉ</i>	even	<i>post</i>	after
<i>bone</i>	well		
<i>infano</i>	child	<i>du</i>	two
<i>horo</i>	hour	<i>kie</i>	where
<i>de</i>	of, from	<i>temo</i>	subject
<i>tiu</i>	this, that	<i>konstati</i>	to ascertain, to state,
<i>tempo</i>	time		to verify
<i>diri</i>	to say, to tell	<i>punkto</i>	point
<i>ke</i>	that	<i>vidi</i>	to see

In compound words the word expressing the principal idea is placed last. Generally it is sufficient to use the root of the qualifying word, but if the sound or sense requires it, the whole word is taken, *unuajara* means "of one year", *unuajara*, "of the first year"; *kunmeti*, join, put together, *vidpunkto*, point of view.

Sufiksaj "ist" signifas profesion, ekzemple *instrui* (to teach), *instruisto* (teacher)
 "ej" ,, loko (place), ekz. *lerni* (to learn), *lernejo* (school)

Verbs future ends in "os" *Mi venos morgaŭ*, I shall come to-morrow

Por infanoj tiu fakto estas tre grava. Infanoj ne ŝatas lerni ion, se ili ne rimarkas progresojn, se ili ne sentas, ke baldaŭ ili atingos precizan celon. Infanoj lernas kun plezuro esperanton, ĉar ili rapide progresas, baldaŭ kapablas legi, skribi, paroli ĝin. Dum esperanto-leciono estas ĝoja atmosfero en la klaso. Tiu ĝojo venas unue de la intereso kiun havas infanoj por sekretaj lingvoj kaj por misteraj skriboj; due, ĉiu infano ŝatas konstrui, kunmeti. Estas en ĝi forta konstrua instinkto. Sed en historiaj lingvoj, tiuj provoj ofte kondukas ĝin al eraroj. Ĝi perdas fidon. Kontraŭe, en esperanto, se ĝi atentis bone, ĝi estas tute certa ne erari, sed krei vortojn, kiuj ekzistas fakte. Tiu ĝojo ĉe la laboro multe helpas la sukceson, ne nur dum tiu leciono, sed rilate al la tuta spirito de la lernejo. De ĝenerala vidpunkto, tre favora estas do studo de esperanto en la lernejo.

<i>por</i>	for	<i>tute</i>	quite
<i>io</i>	anything	<i>vorto</i>	word
<i>kun</i>	with	<i>tre</i>	very
<i>dum</i>	during	<i>ĉe</i>	by
<i>meti</i>	to put	<i>atingi</i>	to attain, to reach
<i>fido</i>	faith, confidence	<i>kaj</i>	and
<i>atento</i>	attention	<i>ĉar</i>	because, for
<i>veni</i>	to come	<i>nur</i>	only
<i>preskaŭ</i>	almost	<i>tuta</i>	whole
<i>provi</i>	to try	<i>do</i>	then
		<i>multe</i>	much

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THE NEW ERA

(The English Organ of the New Education Fellowship)

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Vol 9

APRIL, 1928

No 34

EDITIONS:

ENGLISH (Quarterly)	THE NEW ERA	<i>Subscriptions per ann., post free</i> 8s. 6d. (\$1 15)
	Mrs Beatrice Ensor, 11, Tavistock Sq., London	
FRENCH (Monthly)	POUR L'ERE NOUVELLE	8 Fr. (Swiss), 6/8, \$1.60
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Subscription to *The New Era* is 4/6 (\$1.15) per annum.

Single copies, 1/2 (30cts.), post free.

(Foreign cheques accepted but 10 cts. should be added to cheques drawn on distant banks.)

Published: JANUARY, APRIL, JULY, OCTOBER

THE NEW ERA, 11, TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1, ENGLAND.

AGENTS—London: W. H. Smith & Son; F. Henderson, 76, Charing Cross Road.

U.S.A.: Bookshop for Boys and Girls, 270, Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.

S Africa: Juta & Co, Ltd, Booksellers, P.O. Box 30, Capetown (also Johannesburg)

Printed and made in Great Britain.

THE OUTLOOK TOWER

*"Sometimes I think that every earthly thing
Holds the three seeds of prophet, priest and king."*

MASEFIELD.

JUST as it is much easier to give an impersonal description of an acquaintance than of an intimate and loved friend, so is it easier to write of educational progress in countries other than our own. We must frankly admit that our attempt to survey educational advance in England has daunted us; we are only too conscious of the weakness and incompleteness of our survey.*

A survey may be made from many angles; naturally ours will be seen from the particular standpoint that we represent. We urge that education should take cognizance of the modern advances in psychology, of rapidly changing industrial conditions, of the imminent reconstruction of our social fabric, and above all of the wider vision of life that has come to many as a result of War and post-War experiences. Life is being challenged at every point and we must endeavour to prepare our children to carry forward the changes that must come if we are to avoid national, and perhaps world, catastrophe.

Changes in spiritual activity conducive to psychological freedom are of greater significance than changes in administration, though necessarily new wine needs new bottles. Changes in the national consciousness concerning education are thwarted and hampered unless there are corresponding improvements in the forms through which the consciousness must function.

We feel with Bernard Shaw that "Civilisation cannot survive without religion. It matters not what name we bestow

upon our divinity—Life Force, World Spirit, *Élan Vital*, Creative Evolution—without religion life becomes a meaningless concatenation of accidents. I can conceive of salvation without a god, but I cannot conceive of it without a religion."

To believe in Creative Evolution is not to follow a cold and impersonal philosophy. Our belief can be raised to the level of a religious ideal, for as Prof. C. Lloyd Morgan has written, "We acknowledge God as above and beyond. But unless we also intuitively enjoy His Activity within us, feeling that we are in a measure one with Him in Substance, we can have no immediate knowledge of Causality or of God as the Source of our own existence and of emergent evolution."

We believe that there is a Divine purpose underlying the urge of evolution and that from time to time new characteristics emerge which indicate the line of advance along which evolution is proceeding. It is our part to try to discern these new indications, to sense their direction, to co-operate with the Divine plan as far as we can understand it. It may be that future generations will look back upon the present beginnings of reconstruction in education and see in them the first signs of what proved to be an unprecedented release of faculty in the human race. For such ends we can work joyously and unstintingly.

Education in England is a complex organism circumscribed by tradition and deeply coloured by English national characteristics. During the storm raised by the Rev. H. R. L. Sheppard's book *The Impatience of a Parson* it was pertinently remarked that we need both priests and prophets; the one to conserve and stabilise, the other to exhort and inspire. We have consulted both priests and prophets in our attempt to arrive at a

* Our first intention in planning this number was to give a survey of all types of education in England, but lack of space has made this impossible. Our July number will therefore be an extension of this issue and will deal with Nursery Schools, Secondary Schools, Training Colleges and additional Private Schools.

balanced view of educational conditions in England. We have listened to the high priests at the Board of Education and to the voices crying in the wilderness in obscure and dismal schools, and to the many varying shades of educational opinion that lie between these two extremes.

We have been stirred to make this survey by the fact that some visitors from abroad express disappointment at the lack of anything particularly noteworthy in England's educational progress. What is England's contribution to the world advance in education that has taken place during the last 10 years? These visitors say that we are stagnating, that we lag behind. Granted that we have nothing to show as fundamentally significant as the educational work of the Soviet Empire, nothing as spectacular as the reform of the Viennese schools, nothing as democratic and thorough as the changes in the Hamburg schools, that we have no Columbia University nor Teachers' College as in the U.S.A., no permeating educational philosophy of education such as John Dewey's, practically no educational research work, comparatively little applied psychology, no large and influential parents' association to lead public opinion, yet, notwithstanding all this, it is possible for an eminent authority such as Sir Michael Sadler to say in his presidential address to the Conference of Educational Associations at the London University "Britain is to Education what France is to painting . . . there has never been a time in which Britain's example has counted for more in contemporary education. . . . Britain, and especially England, is to-day the greatest exporter of educational ideas . . . at one time the main source of the world's educational suggestions was France, then Germany, especially Prussia, then the U.S.A., then Germany and the United States *pari passu*. Now the United States and Britain, but Britain easily first."

What is the reason for this discrepancy? Largely, we think, the English characteristics of individualism and reserve.

The English are innately conservative and, great as has been the ordeal through which we have passed during the War and post-War periods, our advance in education has been considerable, but it has been a gradual process of evolution that is not easily detected by the casual visitor. We are not a people deeply concerned with philosophy, and we have not the keen groups of teachers discussing the philosophy of education that can be found, for instance, in Germany. Our love of sport and open-air life, our mistrust of new ventures, our dislike of publicity, our desire to work quietly as individuals, all make for steady progress rather than for sudden, astonishing achievements.

There is in England an insistent pressure of the new spirit in education; a spirit to be found in all countries of the world revealing itself differently in the various nations according to their special characteristics. Yet among thinking people there is a consensus of opinion that extended educational facilities and important changes are imperative, if Britain is to retain her place among the nations.

There is an unfortunate tendency in Britain to belittle education in America. It would be better if we tried to understand America's problems instead of looking only at her weaknesses. It is natural that the standard of scholarship should be higher in England. We are an older civilisation and "the mainspring of education in Europe is an immemorial reverence for learning. The whole body of human knowledge and of scholarly achievement is conceived as constituting the supreme achievement of the race, to be preserved, increased and handed on to posterity as its most precious possession. Higher education, therefore, is planned, not with a view primarily to securing the satisfaction of the individual, but with the purpose of selecting, first, those who are competent and worthy to cherish the human heritage in learning and to add to it; and second, those who may be made skilful in appreciating and applying it in the guidance of human affairs.

This attitude has important conse-

quences. Higher education* in England, and to a still greater degree in France and Germany, is rigidly selective, instead of, as with us (in U.S.A.) sentimentally inclusive."†

In the U.S.A. the magnificent attempt to throw open secondary education to all on a non-selective basis has naturally reduced the standard of scholarship to mediocrity. One should also consider the Herculean task of evolving a homogeneous nation from a heterogeneous mass, the difficulties of dealing with vast numbers, the lack of cultural background in the homes of many of the pupils and the rather wild excursion into a multiplicity of subjects in the curriculum. "American secondary curriculum is to-day detached bundles of information, that cannot be digested and retained because they are not properly related." But in spite of these drawbacks America's achievements are, in our opinion, more remarkable than her weaknesses. Moreover, there is a dynamic force, an irresistible urge to progress, a capacity for vast and rapid changes and a scientific spirit among the best men and women in the States to-day which, together with ample financial support, promises that the next ten years may see many of the weaknesses rectified and the States leading the world in education—an education adjusted to a new social order.

State Education

One authority when asked what he considered to be the greatest change in education in England since the War replied that it was the freedom of the teachers to work out their own salvation, and the

insistence by the Local Education Authorities that teachers must be free to develop their own curricula. But do we train our teachers in such a way that they begin their work in the schools with "unimpaired initiatives," do we give them the knowledge by which they can use their freedom? Undoubtedly during the past few years it has been possible for individual pioneers, especially in the State elementary schools, and in spite of the examinations, inspections, and red-tape that still exist, to contribute to educational advance by their experiments in such a way as to bring illumination to the whole educational field. An important characteristic of English education is that reform does not come through the administrative bodies as in Vienna but through the personal efforts of individual teachers with vision.

The dynamic force in our education lies in the *elementary*‡ State schools and in a few private schools. The new impulses in education find expression in them more readily than in any other schools. There is an increasing rigidity and imperviousness to change as we pass upwards through the Secondary and Public schools to the Universities. These are, in their varying degrees, strongholds of the ancient tradition of learning and are still the special preserves of those who can survive the mill of our examination system, and who can pay high fees.

Central Schools

At 11 years of age there are two opportunities before the children of the State elementary schools. They can pass into the secondary schools, if they are successful in the examination set for this purpose, or they can enter a Central school, for which they are selected partly by

* Forty per cent. of the pupils in London Secondary Schools have been selected from the elementary schools by examination. The remaining pupils of the Secondary Schools are fee paying and not selected. The fees average £10 per year, the remaining cost being shared equally by the Board of Education and the London County Council (or by the Local Education Authority in districts outside London).

† "The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and in Europe," by William S. Learned (a Report of the Carnegie Foundation, 522, Fifth Avenue, New York). This Report should be read by all interested in the education of the adolescent.

‡ Elementary education in London covers 95 per cent of the children in the London area who are receiving full instruction. Elementary education in England is free and compulsory from the ages of 5 to 14. Children over three and under five are admitted to the schools but attendance is not obligatory. At the age of 11 plus the children of the elementary schools can pass either into the secondary schools or into the Central schools or other special schools. Selection for secondary education is made by examination. Education in the secondary school continues until 16 years on an average.

means of examination and partly on the record of progress and conduct

A significant feature of State education in recent years has been the rapid growth of the Central schools. These schools correspond to the junior high school in the States and have a definite bias, either commercial or industrial. The Central schools provide better buildings, a wider and more liberal curriculum than the elementary schools. The curriculum is planned to be of practical value to the average type of child and contains a far greater proportion of practical work than is to be found in the Secondary schools. As a general rule the Central school provides a four years' course, the fourth year being devoted to vocational training. Remarkable figures are available showing that the number of children from the Central schools employed in a higher capacity far exceeds the number so employed who have not passed through a Central school.

The Education of the Adolescent

The Report of the Board of Education on *The Education of the Adolescent** is probably the greatest event in our educational world in recent years, and involves the total re-organisation of our school system.

"Primary education should be regarded as ending at about the age of 11 plus. At that age the second stage, which for the moment may be given the colourless name 'post primary,' should begin; at this stage which, for many pupils would end at 16 plus, for some at 18 or 19, but for the majority at 14 plus or 15 plus, should be envisaged so far as possible as a single whole, within which there will be a variety in the types of education supplied, but which will be marked by the common characteristic that its aim is to provide for the needs of children who are entering and passing through the stage of adolescence . . . the humane or liberal education is not one given through books alone, but one which brings children into contact with the larger interests of mankind, and the aim of schools . . . should be to provide such an education by means of a curriculum containing large opportunities for practical work and related to living interests. . . . It is desirable that education up to 11 plus should be known by the general name of Primary Education, and education after 11 by the general name of Secondary Education, and that schools . . . which

are concerned with the secondary stage of education should be called by the following designations—(i) Schools of the 'Secondary' type most commonly existing to-day, which at present pursue in the main a predominantly literary or scientific curriculum, to be known as Grammar Schools (ii) Schools of the type of the existing Selective Central Schools, which give at least a four years' course from the age of 11 plus, with a 'realistic' or practical trend in the last two years, to be known as Modern Schools (iii) Schools of the type of the present Non-selective Central Schools, with a curriculum on the same general lines as in (ii) and with due provision for differentiation between pupils of different capacities, also to be known as Modern Schools (iv) Departments or Classes within Public Elementary Schools, providing post-primary education for children who do not go to any of the above-mentioned types of Schools, to be known as 'Senior Classes.' "

At the same time that the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education were sitting, another important group, with Lord Haldane as President and Mr. A. J. Lynch—a member of the New Education Fellowship Committee—as Secretary, were considering the same questions, and have published their findings in book form, *The Next Step in National Education*. They warmly endorse the findings of the Consultative Committee, but in doing so they wisely remark: "Too often in our educational history reforms of equal value and authority have remained for some years neglected, until time and the pressure of circumstances have brought them to an incomplete fruition. The suggestions of the Consultative Committee must not be allowed to suffer this fate; the need for reform is too urgent and the opportunity is clear." With the fate of the Fisher Act (1918) in our memories we strongly support this appeal. All who care for the British Empire should do their share in stimulating public opinion to demand that these reforms are carried out as early as possible. If we are to go forward with the main stream of the life of the world we must have educated citizens, remembering always that true education is the release to the full of the creative faculties of each individual. Finance! It may be that the full extension of educational opportunities for all will not come until the peace of the world is secured, until the money now locked up in armaments can be set free in the service of life instead of reserved for the purposes of death.

* Report of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education on "The Education of the Adolescent," His Majesty's Stationery Office, Kingsway, London, W C 2. Price 2/-

It is clear that at least 75 per cent of our children are not of the academic type and therefore not suited to our present system of secondary education. There is a great need for schools in which other types (the organisers, engineers, home-makers, craftsmen, musicians, poets, painters, dramatists, and many other types of creative temperaments) can find fulfilment of their needs. Obviously one pitfall to be avoided is the selection of children for the "Modern" and Central schools by the present system of examination for Secondary schools, which is suited only to the academic types of children. Mr. W. S. Learned writes:—"Differentiation in the instruction of pupils on the basis of intellectual ability assumes in England an importance apparent nowhere else in Europe—one has the impression that, scholastically, the English are a much 'examined' folk . . . the result of this examination tradition is that intellectual activities everywhere in England are carried on with an attitude and in an atmosphere of open competition that makes them nearly as objective as are athletic sports or games."

The "Modern" schools would bring variety into secondary education and perhaps save us from the standardised mediocrity which so much secondary education tends to supply.

It is interesting to note that the statistics of the London County Council for 1927 show that the cost of elementary education per child in London is £15 15s. 5d. per annum, for education at the Central schools, £26 1s., for the Secondary schools, £39 5s. per annum. In Manchester the figures are lower:—£10, £15, £20 respectively.

Method

It is generally recognised that the size of classes must be reduced. The London County Council has been able to reduce 78 per cent. of its classes to 48 in the infants' schools and 40 in the senior schools. Unfortunately some of the school buildings are old and ill-adapted to small classes; they are also a stumbling block to those who try individual work, for which several subjects'

rooms are almost a necessity. Great improvement is urgent in the building and equipment of our elementary schools.

Some changes have recently taken place in the furnishing of elementary school classrooms and, though some regard this as a fashion and a fad that will pass, we are inclined to think that the re-organised classrooms are the outward sign of an inner change in the conception of education. The change has been made from the fixed desks arranged in gallery fashion to fixed desks on the level, and from these to movable desks which are more convenient for individual work and which can be folded away when floor space is needed. There is an interesting sidelight on this re-arrangement in the fact that some teachers have already asked for high desks for themselves from which they can look down upon the children at work; the teacher's old desire for a pedestal, for some artificial aid to preserve the awe and dignity of her position! It is this kind of teacher who finds individual work unsatisfactory because it gives little opportunity for the spirit of domination that is so easily expressed in lectures and the old methods of teaching. But the new teacher is one who evokes rather than instructs, and when we have investigated further into the mysteries of temperament, let us hope that we may be able to warn away from the profession the declamatory type.

The introduction of individual methods has been perhaps the greatest reform in the teaching process during the last ten years. Dr. Montessori has stimulated the introduction of individual methods into the education of younger children and, although the use of her apparatus is not widespread, the Montessori spirit has permeated our infants' schools and many kinds of didactic apparatus have appeared inspired by Dr. Montessori's basic idea of auto-education.

Miss Helen Parkhurst, through the Dalton Plan, has rendered the same service to the teaching of older children, and again, although the actual Dalton Plan has not been adopted in a large number of schools, modified individual methods have increased enormously.

We quote with reference to Secondary schools from the *London Education Service*, issued by the London County Council: "Within the limits of the normal curriculum, there has been found ample scope for that diversity of functions which is the sign and seal of a living system of education We may be believers in the traditional classroom methods of instruction and discipline, and yet feel that a real service has been rendered to education by the introduction into individual schools of the 'Dalton' or 'Howard' methods, which aim at giving greater initiative and responsibility to the individual pupil. Whatever be the final judgment on such experiments it is only by 'trial and error' that educational progress comes."

It is interesting to note that these individual methods are apparently more popular in England than in the U.S.A., where the Project Method has taken a stronger hold. Again this is perhaps because individualism is a characteristic of the English nation rather than collectivism or group work. But more important than the adoption of new methods is the implication that follows from them—that children are being regarded more and more as active agents in their own education and less as passive recipients of knowledge poured out by the teacher. Within the children themselves is to be found the key to their right education. One finds that schools adopting individual methods gradually become transformed in other directions, the curriculum becomes wider and more liberal. Mr. Eades, for instance, a well-known pioneer of the Dalton Plan, is now experimenting further with group work and the correlation of the various school subjects. A short note on his present work appears in this issue.

The Teacher

But behind and above all methods stands the teacher. In teaching it has always been, and always will be, the teacher that is the most important factor. Apparatus, school furniture, new methods, reformed curriculum are not the

true foundation of education, the personality of the teacher transcends these adjuncts, and without the right personality the most perfect school environment in the world is useless.

It is significant that most Secondary school teachers have no training in *education*. They have their degrees, they have acquired their subject matter, but their methods of educating are left to chance. Knowing as we do the subtleties that reveal themselves in the art of education, this omission from our teacher training should not be allowed to continue. Mr. Lance Jones's *The Training of Teachers in England and Wales*, published in 1923, gives the Board of Education figures:—"In 1913 only 180 out of 5,246 men teachers in 1,010 Secondary schools, to which the figures applied, had followed a course of professional training."

The teaching profession itself needs reform not only in the kind of training given to teachers but in the status of teachers as a whole. Why is the work of the teacher considered of less value than that of the doctor, lawyer, barrister or Higher Civil Servant? Not only is the teacher penalised in the matter of salary but also in social status. There is an appalling dearth of male teachers in England to-day. Mr. H. G. Wells, in writing of Public school* teachers—the teachers who have charge of the children of the ruling and directing classes—says:—"The last human beings in the world in whom you are likely to find a spark of creative energy or a touch of imaginative vigour are the masters and mistresses of the upper middle-class schools to whom we entrust the sons and daughters of nearly all the owning and directing people of our world." These teachers are "by necessity orthodox, conformist, genteel people of an infinite discretion and an invincible formality. Essentially they are a class of refugees

* Foreign readers should remember that the "Public schools" so called are not the schools supported by the public as their name might imply. They are private institutions, often of ancient origin, charging high fees. The schools supported by the public are chiefly the "elementary" and "secondary schools."

from the novelties and strains and adventures of life." It is so often the men who fail who take up school-mastering. " ' Poor devil. . . He's got a second-class. His people have no money. . . He'll have to go into a school.' A few public schoolmasters have a vocation; the body of them, the substance of the profession, is that sort of residue. Its mentality is the mentality of residual men."

Is this not a factor that should concern us very considerably, that the youth who in the near future will hold the power of the world are spending the "most plastic years of their lives under the influence of the least lively, least enterprising, most restrictive, most conservative and intricately self-protective types?"

To the Universities much of the same criticism can be applied. It is significant that neither Oxford nor Cambridge has a professorial Chair in Education! "I encounter a growing discontent with Oxford and Cambridge among many of my friends who have had undergraduate sons. . . They send their boys trustfully and hopefully to these over-rated centres. They find themselves confronted with pleasant, easy-going, evasive young men, up to nothing in particular and schooled out of faith, passion or ambition."

We agree that for a certain type of man and woman education at Cambridge or Oxford can be the right fulfilment, and these men and women are among the most distinguished scholars of the world. But we are beginning to be alive to the harm done to those who are not temperamentally suited to the kind of culture provided at the Universities, to the young people who are sent there because of the social kudos which is supposed to derive from a few years spent at one of these time-honoured centres of learning.

We must also do away with the barrier that exists between one grade of teacher and another, both as regards salary and status. We look to the day when all teachers will stand equal, the kind of teaching that occupies them being merely a matter of personal selection. We must make of the teaching profession a high art

founded on scientific and psychological knowledge, equal in scope to any other profession and providing opportunities for the initiative and service of our best men and women. We want alive, adventurous, free teachers, and until we secure them for our children all other reforms of method, material, curriculum, etc., are but a vain blowing of the wind.

Psychology

One of the chief weaknesses of our system is that we have not sufficient applied psychology. There is a divorce between the psychological laboratory and the classroom. We have done little with attainment tests and nowhere are there schools with psychologists attached to the staff; a very great number of teachers take no interest whatever in psychology and have no understanding at all of the problem child. Until we can bring psychology into the school we must expect to have corporal punishment and all the other evils that follow in the wake of mal-adjusted children in juxtaposition to unenlightened teachers.

Let us state clearly here that we do not suggest that teachers should give psychological *treatment*. That is a life work. But teachers should be able to detect psychological difficulties and pass the children to the expert for treatment; they should be capable of assisting children to make minor adjustments. By sympathetic talks, by harmonious atmosphere, the teacher can often remove slight inhibitions in young children, and there are few children who do not need psychological help in one direction or another.

While at their training colleges, teachers are for the most part too immature, too unconscious of the forces at play within themselves and in the world around them, to be able to grasp the significance of psychology's contribution to modern life. All that can be done is to give them in college the ground work on which they can build later.

Research

There is a deplorable lack of research in education in England, and because of

this lack a great deal of valuable work that is being done up and down the country is left unrecorded and lost to the profession as a whole. Usually the people who are doing the work are not interested in recording it, and in fact shrink from any kind of publicity and are most difficult to contact. Nevertheless, their work would be of inestimable worth if it could be recorded and made available to other teachers. Little is being done to study the actual learning process, the different types of children and their varying needs and the relation of the present curriculum to the calls of modern life. In view of the proposed extension of education for adolescents one would suppose that some research into the educational requirements of adolescence would be an essential factor of that extension.

"The problem of liberalising the curriculum and of bringing it into closer relation to the realities of the world and to the interests of the children will become even more urgent as secondary education extends and includes the larger proportion of the adolescent population within its range."

Parents

Most of the educationalists with whom we have talked testify to a greater public interest in education than formerly. There are many schools which now have their parents' circles allowing parents to take an active interest in the school work and development. But there is no organisation which links these isolated groups of parents together into one powerful movement as in the States. The time is ripe for the establishment of such an organisation which will bring to parents the new ideas in education both in the school and in the home.

Private Schools

Some of the best experimental work in England is to be found in a few private schools. This is understandable; they are free from officialdom, which at its best is restrictive, and they generally attract the children of progressive parents. It is the aim of some of these

schools to send their young people into the world with awakened capacities and keen initiative. The schools seek to be "models of the world as it ought to be, forecasts of and training places for new achievements in civilisation." Some of these schools are, as it were, research laboratories in which progressive ideas are tested. The successful, workable ideas then pass beyond their walls and become part of the general system of education.

The first of these schools was Abbots-holme, founded by Dr. Cecil Reddie in 1889, then followed Bedales and Clayesmore, King Alfred, St. George's and others. In these schools one finds a greater *joie de vivre* among the children, more initiative, more imagination, more general culture and a wider range of intelligence, for the basis of their education is the release of powers within rather than an attempt to implant in the children a certain number of facts concerning a certain number of subjects. The pupils of these schools are dynamic rather than static, creative instead of imitative; they have the capacity to live adventurously, and are, we think, the type that the modern world needs to lead it to the new phase which we all agree must come soon if our civilisation is to survive.

There are, of course, dark spots among the private "new" schools, schools which have the catchwords but have only arrived at a general messiness and lack solid achievement. In dispensing with the framework of the old education they have become merely floppy. Again, there are private schools that are well founded but wage a hideous and perpetual struggle with poverty and are unable to provide sufficient staff of the right kind or sufficient equipment.

Let it be understood that the New Education is not a miracle-working magic; it does not aim at producing prodigies and geniuses; it seeks to produce happy and harmoniously living persons, adjusted as far as possible to the rapidly changing life around them. The best education will always be limited in its results by the inherent qualities of the

individuals with which it deals; these qualities education can direct and bring to full blossom, but only the slow process of evolution can change or increase the potentialities of the individual. Only so much of light and power is within each soul and all that education can do is to open windows through which the light can shine and construct channels through which the power can work for the service of the world.

Notwithstanding our foregoing criticisms we are not unmindful of the great advances in education during the last 50 years; we are not ungrateful to the many who have sacrificed, who have given thankless years of solid toil to bring us to our present position. It is our part, as pioneers, to urge forward continually, to express the dynamic forces that ensure a perpetual "becoming." We do not belittle past achievements, it is only when compared with the vision of the possible future that the past and present are seen to be but stepping stones over which we must pass swiftly to a fairer world.

The New Education Movement

One of the chief forces that helped the New Education movement to consciousness of itself was the New Ideals in Education Conference Committee founded in 1914. This Committee has held yearly conferences in England and was the first effort to bring together the pioneers from every branch of the profession.

The New Education Fellowship sprang up in 1921 as an endeavour to sound the note of internationalism. The new impulse was stirring all over the world, no medium existed through which the teachers of different countries could be linked together and hear of each other's work. The Fellowship has striven to form a living bond between isolated workers, to keep them informed of each other's experiences so that none might feel isolated and alone. The Fellowship has provided an open platform from which teachers could hear the leading exponents of the new ideas, and, by its biennial international conferences, it has

brought teachers into the living presence of many educational leaders and formed a common ground on which those leaders could meet each other. And from such contacts all have returned to their uphill tasks refreshed and illumined.

At the Fellowship's offices in different countries a great deal of information has been collected on New Education and made available to enquirers. In London a unique library of books has been built up which enables teachers in remote parts to keep in touch with the trend of modern ideas, and to study in detail any special aspect of the New Education.

There is still a vast amount that could be done by the Fellowship, particularly in the field of research, but funds are lacking for any further extension of our plans, and it may be that much of the work that we are doing will be curtailed unless someone who believes in our work and is inspired by our vision comes forward with substantial financial assistance.

The President of the N.E.F. in England

It is with very great pleasure that we welcome Sir Michael Sadler as the first President of our English Section of the Fellowship. Sir Michael is well-known to all educational pioneers as a friend and helper. We are also glad to announce that Dr. Percy Nunn is now among our English vice-presidents. With such valuable support the New Education movement can surely reach to the ends of the earth and play a large part in guiding the footsteps of the young to a New Dawn.

Nobel Peace Prize for Prof. Buisson

Readers will join us in congratulating Professor F. Buisson, one of our Fellowship's supporters in France, on having obtained the Nobel Peace Prize this year, dividing it with Dr. Quide, a well-known German pacifist. Professor Buisson is 86 and has for many years been the President of the League for the Rights of Man (*La Ligue des Droits de l'Homme et du Citoyen*).

Hopes and Fears

By Sir Michael Sadler

(Master of University College, Oxford)

DURING the last few months it has been my good fortune, after a long illness, to read rather widely in the new educational literature of Great Britain and other countries, and thus, as one does in visiting friends at home or abroad after an interval of separation, to get a vivid impression of growth and change. I am struck by the vitality of the new educational movement in all lands, East and West.

Freedom is our watchword—freedom for those who teach and for those who learn. But we do not delude ourselves about the dangers which beset our will to do what conscience bids us do. We remember our own childhood, our own difficulties during the rough crossing from being children to growing up, our failures in later years, the tension in our minds, the pressure of circumstance, the power of example for harm as well as for good, the impalpable breath of social tradition, the chains of self-centredness, rushes of desire which overcome self-restraint, cowardice which makes us hide in the shadow, excitement which drowns the judgment, vanity which makes us say what we do not mean, “accidie” which makes us self-conscious, ineffective, morose; jealousy which poisons our sense of justice, anger which blinds us. We remember how these faults troubled us when we were little, how frequently they spoil us now that we are older. And therefore we are not rash or over sanguine in our reading of human nature or in our hopes of sudden change in its ancient failings. But we believe in freedom, and that through freedom and responsibility we win our way to truth and self-content.

In all countries there is a thirst for this inner freedom and a desire that the air of freedom should blow through the

schools. Through this common need we find a common purpose, sympathy which transcends differences of language and of national pride, willingness to learn from one another, and gratitude to those great leaders who were pioneers in the path to freedom.

II

But the brighter the light, the darker the shadows. In the background of our hearts and minds there is fear. Fear makes us acquiesce in putting fetters on freedom. We fear attacks from our enemies, we fear assaults on vital national interests, we fear predatory legislation, we fear revolution, we fear intellectual discomfiture, we fear the undermining of the structure of our belief, we fear making fools of ourselves by trusting other people too much.

This fear holds us back from doing much that we should like to do. It weakens our courage, it deters us from bold adventure in education; it makes us meaner than we should be in giving money to new causes. It gives a longer lease of life to methods of discipline which jar with freedom. It tempts us to be hypercritical, and even sceptical, of educational inquiry and experiment. Our fears may not be strong enough to force us into reaction. But they make us falter and we are half-hearted.

III

Union will give us strength. Those of us who believe in freedom must hold together, must get to know one another better, must make opportunities of comparing experience, must say plainly what we think and what we wish to change. Great forces, impersonal forces, are against us. But courage and patience will win.

Abbotsholme School, 1927

(Near Rocester, Derbyshire)

Colin H. C. Sharp, M.A. (Oxon.), Headmaster

(Late Reader in English, University of Delhi)

[Abbotsholme was the first of the "new" schools in England. Founded in 1889 by Dr. Reddie, it inspired among others Dr. Hermann Lietz, who founded similar schools ("Land-Erziehungsheime") in Germany.]

LAST July, after thirty-eight years of eventful life under its founder, Dr. Reddie, Abbotsholme was finally taken over by a Council of old boys and others, formed, under the chairmanship of Professor J. J. Findlay, to carry on the school in accordance with the educational principles developed there by the founder, who retains a seat on the Council. The school is just completing its first term under the new regime.

It is early therefore to write of things accomplished, and only possible to outline some of the plans in the mind of the present staff, by which they hope increasingly to carry out the declared aim of the school—to cultivate adequately the whole personality of the boys. It should however be prefaced that the conditions for the start are in many ways favourable: the school is not handicapped by debt, the estate and environment are the most ideal I have ever seen, and while numbers are small and there is need for expensive educational improvement in the buildings as the school grows, in some ways it is exceptionally well supplied with educational necessities. The old boys are a tower of strength and we have started with a more than adequate staff.

Education

The problem of a complete education is too large for one article or even for one volume. Yet it is that which Abbotsholme stands for more than for any experiment along specialised lines. Its old boys learned, as they say, the "Hang-together of things." The school emphasis on a philosophy of life, its training of tastes and of affections, its

demand for religious honesty and its conscious comparison of the outer world to the "school-home" are reflected in every old Abbotsholmian I have met. I have been very much struck by their health of outlook, moral and mental, and by their independence of mind. I may be wrong, but it seems to me that the actual methods of teaching, like the discipline of the school, were linked closely to the personalities of the Warden and his staff, and, while the school led the way in many technical advances, as, for example, in the first use of the Direct Method for the teaching of modern languages, the aim was rather to apply all-round in the boys' lives the discoveries of experimental pedagogy, than to be a laboratory for experiment in any specialised subjects of instruction. At all events that is true of the school to-day. Such novelty as we may achieve in educational technique, e.g., in the methods employed to ensure accuracy and professional standards or to combine memory training with reasoned understanding, or in the use of intelligence tests for entrance scholarships, or in the application of the inwardness of the Scout patrol system to the training of the greater instincts, will be only incidental to the aim of the school, which is to cultivate a balanced whole, rather than special parts.

Freedom

In this connection our emphasis on short-time purposes and achievements and on mutual instruction and team work, with a gradual development of field, library and laboratory work along lines not far different from the Dalton Plan, its

should lead to reality and individualisation of study and to the mastery of knowledge by constant application and re-expression, while shoddy work should be checked by the professional standards set. The freedom movement, as I take it, is founded on the desire to give the individual his chance of growth, in reaction against uniformity hammered into boys in a battle between teacher and taught. Real responsibility in intellectual, as well as in social and athletic pursuits, realised pleasure in self-education and real powers of choice are as necessary as the sense that boys are not treated as mere unreasoning memories, as irresponsible children or as beings naturally idle, rebellious and corrupt. Discipline must be the discipline of fellowship, as in a family, in a team or in a Boy Scout troop; the old antithesis of work and leisure needs readjustment. On the other hand, it is as unwise to commit our faith to the natural goodness as to the natural wickedness of human boys; there is no *tabula rasa*: a boy's tendencies are relative not only to his environment but also to his previous history and growth. Freedom as a catchword may not only frighten the enquirer and the layman, but may actually leave room for serious gaps in education and serious lapses of standard. So long as a school is small and deliberately intends to maintain limits to its size, individuality and choice may be given full play in a full and balanced time-table, while direction may be so personal and co-operative that government, however decided, is hardly realised.

Correlation

In a school where each subject is approached as a separate problem, not to be tyrannised over by any plan, ancient or modern, all that can be given in a brief article is an account of the general scope aimed at and of the principles of correlation. Moreover, Abbotsholme now consists of two schools, a Junior, taking boys from the first form up to twelve, and a Senior, for boys of twelve to eighteen—and the whole outlook of the boys and attitude of the staff are bound to be

different for the two schools. The romance of life, with imagination and playwork, of the one, contrasts with the search for principle and the group loyalties of the other, though to both the sense of achievement and of rational grasp are vital.

Intellectual subjects are here so closely linked with the physical, manual and social, in the life of the school, the farm and the estate, that the scope of the whole education may be indicated in terms of its intellectual elements, under three main aspects which may be called philosophy, art and the tools of mankind. The biological outlook on life, the scientist's determination not to abuse his selection of the relevant by picking out observed fact to suit his theory, the historian's study of the problems of human evidence, the modern citizen's appreciation of the issues before the whole world of to-day, are the prime factors which justify the great emphasis on the sciences, on history and on the study of the problems, geographical, economic and political, of modern life. Music and other forms of appreciation and expression are grouped with dramatic and other literature, of which the basis is English, for the training of the affections and sympathies, a matter to which I wish to refer again. Languages and mathematics and certain factual knowledge in the other subjects are the essential tools, the keys to nearly all accomplishment, and can be taught in relation to simple achievement at every stage. An alternative method of grouping subjects, according to their contribution to the process of learning how to learn, would have made it easier to show the place of Latin and of (optional) Greek, but might easily lend itself to dangerous generalisations and false psychology.

Plans for co-ordination of subjects are at present only partially applied, for fear that artificial and forced correlation might defeat its own ends. Actually the foreign language sequence, new languages being started two years apart, is intended to work in with the history, literature, geography and handwork of various kinds,

while the sciences and crafts, though they begin with close links through geography, nature study, physiology and hygiene, tend to form a second group, linked to the other by the life and religion of the community. After all, the object of this school is to fit its boys to take up professions in life and yet to have the background which will enable them to be men as well as agents or producers; the subject-matter and correlation cannot therefore be chosen on purely ideal grounds nor can they vary too markedly from those of other schools, except in emphasis and outlook.

As I look down my notes on points I should like to include about physical education, religious teaching, the place and treatment of English, out-of-door activities, manual work, games and opportunities for boys' social service in school life, I realise afresh the pressure on the school time-table and the difficulty of achieving that balance which we here so entirely desire. I can, however, only find room to touch on one more point, the training of the affections.

Co-education

It was a dictum of Dr. Reddie's that the more the mind is trained, the more important is it to train the taste and affections. It is here that I have the strongest sympathy for co-education and at the same time feel that the point of cleavage is most distinct. My wife and I have not yet ourselves formed definite views as to the advisability of co-education up to the age of twelve; frankly, for my part, I do not yet know enough about girls. But for the upper school I feel that, while it is necessary to invite in girls when possible for games and common activities and for boys to have the companionship of girls in holiday-time, co-education in a school pays too heavily for its undoubted benefits. The difficulty of the common appeal, whether in class, in general activities or in disciplinary matters, appears to be itself a serious handicap to standards and unity of life, but, unless I am very

wrong, the interest of the girl in the boy at public school ages reacts so strongly on his shy aloofness while he is finding himself, that his growth occurs under conditions of unconscious strain and partial subordination. There are qualities which a boy develops as he approaches manhood, for which he needs to escape from the home and from the eager social instincts of adolescent girls. I have only considered co-education as it affects boys, and I find its arguments very cogent: the unnatural shock of suddenly realised sex and the unnatural seclusion of boys to monastic coldness are equally dangerous and to be provided against. I would not claim that the methods here used provide as fully for the boy who never meets a girl in home life, but I believe that, in all ordinary cases, the same end can be achieved at a far less cost. Here there will always be women in the life of the school while life in the midst of a productive stock farm and in lovely country is felt as a beautiful and natural process, curiously genuine and first-hand. The entirely simple and natural teaching of physiology and hygiene, the keynote of life struck by the services in chapel, and, in particular, the sublimation of the masculine instincts in the school organisation and life, by the close and loyal leadership, as in "patrols," of the younger boys by the seniors, and by the constant creative enjoyment of beauty of sight, sound and movement, each contribute in their degree to what has been and, I hope, will continue to be, marked success on this side of education.

Here, however, as elsewhere, the application of principles and their development can never be regarded as final. I have never found any occupation in which there was so much to learn as in this headmastership, and I have tried to set out something of our plans and views, not in a dogmatic spirit of certainty, but as a student of boyhood, seeking to share, through Abbotsholme, in the building of a better world.

Abinger Hill School

(A New Public Preparatory School for Boys)

By Belle Rennie

(Hon. Secretary, Dalton Association)

ABINGER HILL SCHOOL, which opened its doors to pupils for the first time last term, marks a new stage in the education of boys whose parents are accustomed to send them, at an early age, to become boarders at a Preparatory School.

Abinger Hill is not a proprietary school, but is governed by a Council on which it is intended that one mother shall always sit. The first to hold this position is Mrs. David Margesson, whose husband, Captain Margesson, represents the Rugby Division of Warwickshire in the House of Commons. It was felt by the Council that the mother's point of view, particularly when surrendering her boy, for the first time, into the hands of strangers, should have very special consideration from those responsible for the administration of schools. Since the value of the woman's point of view has now been proved by Councils and Committees innumerable, it seems irrational to deny her a place amongst those who are dealing with the education—mental, moral and physical—of her sons.

The school is most beautifully situated on the south-west slope of Leith Hill, within six miles of Dorking. It stands in its own grounds of 130 acres, which include one of the most beautiful rock gardens in Surrey, as well as many acres of heather and woodland.

Wonderful views and delightfully bracing air are the natural results of the position 670 feet above sea level. A great and unusual asset to the school premises is a covered riding school, 150 feet long, with open sides, which provides ample space for games, including even football, in wet weather.

Vita glass has been put into the windows of the class-rooms and dormi-

tories, and the house made in every way ideally suitable for its purpose.

Diet

The feeding of school children is a vital part of education which has, up till recently, received more scientific and careful attention in America than in this country. The recent experiments of Dr. Corry Mann (whose report has been published after three years of careful research work) have, however, provided most convincing and helpful data on which school feeding can be based with the certainty that the full physical development of the children is being assured. Dr. Corry Mann had the opportunity of testing the effects of various additions to the diet of groups of forty school boys over a period of three years.

One group of boys received a basic diet, calculated to satisfy a growing boy and provide the requisite nutrition. Other groups lived for the same period on—

- B The basic diet plus one pint of milk
- C The basic diet plus an extra ration of butter.
- D The basic diet plus an equal extra ration of margarine
- E The basic diet plus a daily ration of watercress

While the boys whose diet included extra butter and watercress made slightly increased gains in height and weight over those fed on the basic diet, the really startling results were provided by the group of boys to whose diet the extra pint of milk a day had been added. It is, as the Medical Research Council say, in their preface to Dr. Corry Mann's pamphlet, "startling to learn, as we now do, that the addition of one pint of milk a day to a diet which, by itself, satisfied the appetite of growing boys fed upon it

could convert an average annual gain of weight of 3.85 lb. per boy into one of 6.98 lb. and an average annual increase of height from 1.84 inches to 2.63 inches."

The boys of this milk-drinking group are mentioned in the report as being "obviously more fit than those of the other groups." Dr. Corry Mann deprecates the unalterable menu, and thinks it undesirable that boys should know that Thursdays will inevitably produce boiled mutton, or any other dish.

At Abinger Hill the menus are so arranged that there is no formal recurrence of one dish every week, or even every fortnight, on a given day. Fresh fruit is provided daily, while the pint of Jersey milk which each boy drinks, in addition to the tea or cocoa provided at breakfast and tea, has a fat content of 5.5 per cent., as against the 3.7 per cent. present in the milk used for the boys in Dr. Corry Mann's experiments.

Dalton Plan

The school work at Abinger Hill is arranged on the Dalton Plan of individual work, which has, for the past seven years, been so enormously successful in thousands of State-aided schools throughout the country, as well as in many private schools.

The boys are allowed certain periods for free study, during which time they can work individually at the subjects in which work has been assigned to them, attacking them in any order they choose and giving more time to the subjects they find difficult, and less to those they can do with ease, and securing whatever help they find necessary from their teacher or from books, to ensure the successful completion of their task.

A certain amount of time spent in this way is of immense benefit, both to the slow and the quick boy, for the slow one can work steadily on, taking the time he needs to grasp difficult points and receiving individual coaching from his teacher; while the quick boy can forge ahead, without being held up by explana-

tions—designed for the slow boys—on points he has already grasped.

It is agreed by all teachers who have worked their schools in this way that it makes for self-reliance and self-confidence in their pupils; that more and better work is done with far greater keenness and that a spirit of co-operation is fostered.

Dr. Kimmins, the Chairman of the Council, in speaking of this aspect of the school in a recent interview, emphasised the danger which existed, at this plastic age, of a boy being moulded into a particular type in a particular school. "At the preparatory school age," said Dr. Kimmins, "it is so important that the boy should have an opportunity of developing quite naturally, otherwise he will have no means of forming a genuine personality of his own. In any group of boys there is naturally a considerable variety of native ability, and this fails to find expression in any rigid class system."

Dr. Kimmins added that these very real dangers will be avoided in the school at Abinger Hill which, in his opinion, would represent a great advance in education. There will be no work before breakfast and no late evening work, and the numerous voluntary societies, together with various handicrafts, will appeal to the average boy's natural desire to "learn by doing."

Games

The games will be under the general direction of Major Faulkner, D.S.O., founder of the School of Cricket, who will personally coach the boys. Cricket practice will be continued under cover during the winter terms.

Patrons

Among the patrons of the school are the Bishop of Liverpool, Lord Burnham, Lord Hanworth, Sir Rennell Rodd and Professor Percy Nunn, and the Duchess of Atholl has kindly promised to address the boys and their parents and the friends of the School at the first Speech Day during the summer term.



ABINGER HILL SCHOOL, HOLMBURY ST MARY, DORKING, SURREY



THE NETBALL MULTIPLICATION GAME

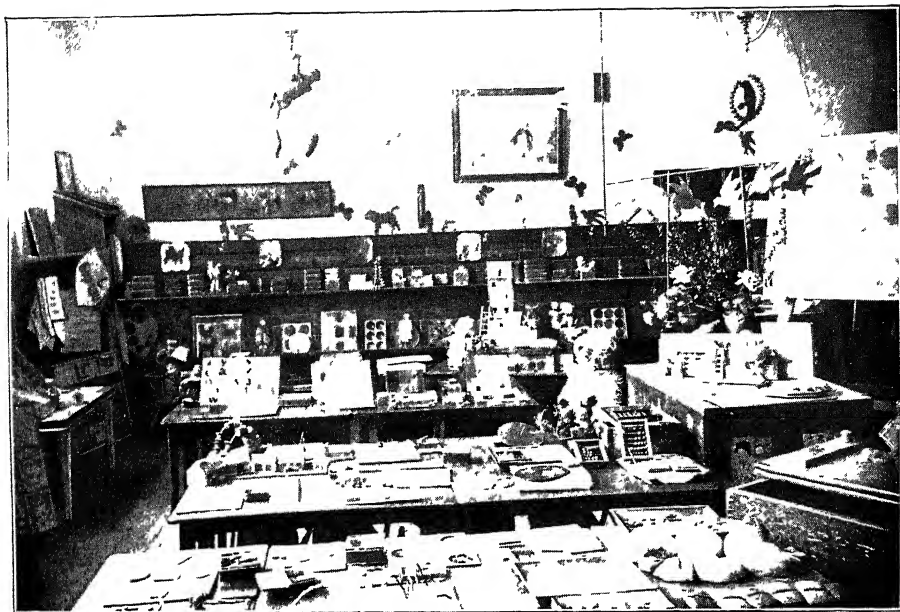
The child has to give a correct answer to a multiplication challenge before the ball reaches its hands. Those who fail have to sit down. The last to remain standing wins the game.

(See Page 81)

THE MULTIPLICATION GAME

The front row taking 3 times table have just been challenged "8 threes". They are seen rising after giving the answer "24" before proceeding in the Team race.





Denmark Hill (L C C Infants) School, Camberwell, London
(Apparatus devised by Miss Christie)



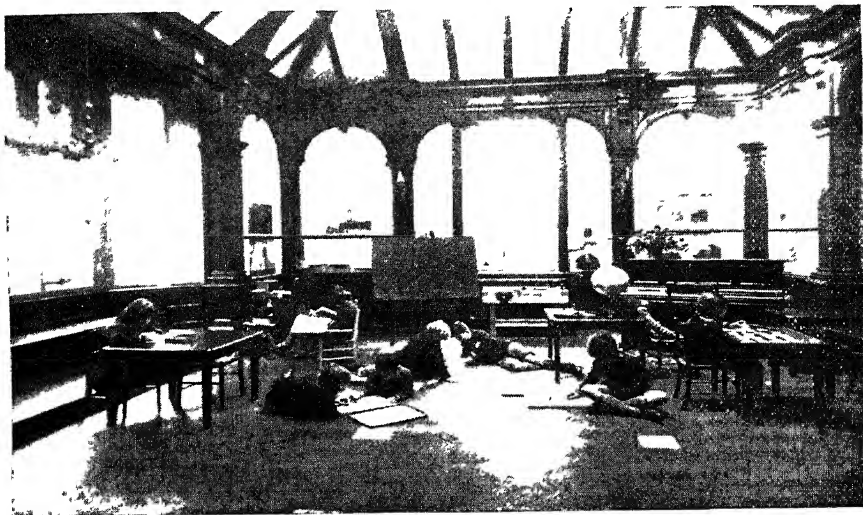
Practical Work Room, Rangefield (L C C) School, Downham Estate,
near Southend Village

BEACON HILL SCHOOL, HARTING, PETERSFIELD



Beacon Hill as a nursery school, recently started by the Hon and Mrs Bertrand Russell
in a beautiful part of Sussex

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS, NEAR FARNHAM, SURREY



Montessori Room



Crafts Room

Finance

The foundation of this school gives an opportunity to all parents and others interested in the future of education in this country to participate in a scheme which is for the benefit of children of their own class, without any strain on their pockets.

One hundred pound debenture shares are available, bearing interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum, and the co-operation of all who may be interested will be very much appreciated by the Council, as it is on such public support that the future success of the school depends.

It has been suggested that some parents may like to buy shares in the name of a son or daughter and so interest the future generation in the fortunes of Abinger Hill.

The holder of five debenture shares is entitled to nominate a boy to the school.

Any profit made, after the payment of the interest on the capital specified, and of all outgoings, will be added to the foundation capital for the benefit of the school and for such purposes as the creation of leaving scholarships, etc.

For those whose generosity may prompt them to follow in the footsteps of our mediæval forbears and become actual founders of the school many opportunities are offered. Scholarships may be given, workshops or laboratories equipped

or a chapel built. Mrs. Louis Baron, daughter-in-law of Mr. Bernhard Baron, so well known for his princely generosity, has already presented one scholarship of the annual value of ten pounds. One thousand pounds provides a scholarship of fifty pounds a year in perpetuity, to which the donor may nominate a boy.

In the matter of fees it has been decided to make an absolutely inclusive rate per term, with no extras for music, school books, laundry, or any of the items usually added to the fee for tuition and board.

Ideals

The boys attend a special service held for them by the Vicar in the parish church, and it is the constant aim of the school to foster in them a real spirit of service to God and their fellows, a reverence for truth and beauty, and a desire to make the best possible use of their talents, so that in the future their lives may be of the highest service to their country and the world.

Visitors will be welcome should they wish to see the school at any time, and prospectuses may be had from The Headmaster, Abinger Hill, Holmbury St. Mary, Surrey. Particulars of the debentures may be had from the Secretary of the Company, J. C. Parker, Esq., 14, Easton Street, High Wycombe, Bucks.

Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon

IN the heart of Devonshire, surrounded by grand stretches of country, stands the beautiful old mansion, Dartington Hall, which forms the centre of an extremely interesting educational experiment.

Mr. and Mrs. Leonard Elmhirst have been largely influenced by Tagore in founding the community and the school at Dartington. The school, containing at present about twenty boarders, boys and girls, between seven and fifteen years, forms part of the larger community which has as its fundamental purpose the furtherance of English agriculture. There

is no head to this community; it consists of a group of young enthusiasts, mostly college men trained as specialists in their own departments, the heads of which are linked in a Committee with a small Executive for emergency decisions. The departments include a model forestry, dairy-farm, poultry-farm, fruit-farm and aviary. Every department is a unit, self-organised, with a separate banking account, and should in time be self-supporting. Later on, other departments will be added to those already developed.

Summerhill

By A. S. Neill, M.A.

(Principal of Summerhill; Author of "A Dominie's Log,"
"The Problem Child," etc.)

THREE years ago we began with five children in Lyme Regis. Numbers forced us to move to Leiston, Suffolk. The name Summerhill went with us along with thirty-one pupils—boys and girls.

Unfortunately I wrote a book called *The Problem Child*. Unfortunately, because some people come to the school to view a collection of freaks. They marvel to see a group of normal children. A few, of course, have been problem children. In the main I get problem children as pupils, or perhaps more often children of problem parents. The main point is that in a very short time these children become normal and happy. (The terms are synonymous).

Again, visitors come to see my "experiment." But there is no experiment. There is only a demonstration. In an experiment one tries something to see what will happen; in a demonstration one knows what is going to happen. If a boy, expelled from a school for stealing, comes to my school I know that within a year he will cease to be a thief, for I know that he is going to find happiness in the school. I have never been sure if happiness alone will cure, and I always combine with a free life some psychological analysis, for to leave septic roots in a jaw is to ask for trouble later. Hence it comes that new children generally have what they call "Private Lessons" with me; that is, I sit and smoke while the child sits and brings up his various worries. At the moment a new boy who has had an unhappy time sits daily and invents uncomplimentary epithets about my face. This will continue until he exhausts his interest.

That I am an important person in the school is, of course, true. But, apart

from Private Lessons, I am not too important in the school. The children when they meet weekly to make their laws and treat offenders never call me in. They do not need me. If the house were to go on fire they would certainly run to me. If, however, they decide that Bob, the new boy, is forbidden to go down town unwashed (the ground being that he will disgrace the school) I am not even told of the event. And, because at the moment I am secretly encouraging Bob to go unwashed (he came from a place where washing was a super-virtue), perhaps it is just as well that they do not consult me about their latest law.

These children are really marvellous. They make laws and keep them. Last week a big boy who had been a rebel against authority all his life, and came new this term, came to me saying: "Neill, will you give me permission to go down town alone?" I told him that I didn't care what he did, asked him why he didn't go. "*Schulgemeinde* rule that you're only allowed to go down town in twos," he said. He departed with a sigh. "Guess I'll have to root out someone to go with me," he said. That to me is a miracle. Again and again I see the same thing. The rules made by their peers are sacred to children. But the children must feel that they are quite free. There must be no fear disguised as respect of adults; there must be no gentle leading by teachers.

That my staff and I are a crowd of saints I hasten to deny. There is a perpetual feud between children and adults, a feud over property. It would be idle to deny it. Children are ideal when they deal with humans. The tolerance and sympathy shown in our *Schulgemeinden* are wonderful. It is

where children deal with inanimate things that they differ from (and, alas, with) grown-ups. Our new house is a fine house with beautiful panelling and massive oak doors. Children have no natural appreciation of oak doors. They find that you can make nice marks on an oak panel with a chisel. Occasionally I raise a storm at a meeting, protesting with spirit against the damage to my walls. The older children pretend to be on my side, but I know that it is only a friendly sympathy. They cannot have any sympathy with my values of things. I sometimes speculate on having a school built by the village blacksmith for the pupils under fourteen. Other adults—my wife, for example—have not my passion for made things, but I am a craftsman of long standing, and things made by hand have a great value for me. On the other hand, in any special case I sacrifice the material to the child without worry. Thus, to-day I allow a boy to use and misuse all my best metal-work tools, because to have my tools is a psychological necessity for him. It is the wear and tear of the happy normal children that sometimes worries me.

Children can be made to respect material, either by fear or by training. As either way damages the child's soul I prefer damaged panels. The psychological point to consider is that a child does not have the same ideas of beauty and value as an adult, and any living together must be a compromise (and a row). That children with age degenerate into valuers of mere things like you and me is one of life's tragedies.

Do the children do any work? With regret I confess that they do too much. Last night I took a German class at seven. It went on till ten. The Matric group work at all odd times. The smaller children work and play as they please. New pupils always refrain from lessons for periods that vary with the influence of past disciplines. My record case in school is that of a boy who ran away from past schools again and again. He took a whole year to recover; loafed about all day quite content with himself

and life. In pessimistic moments the staff thought that here was the great exception to the rule. But two months ago the boy suddenly began to work. It is of great interest that he fitted into the class. The truth is that the year was not a loaf at all; it was a period of unconscious learning and adaptation.

How do they learn? Now that is a difficult question. We have no apparatus of any kind. We heartily distrust all apparatus that has a didactic aim, for we think that methods of learning are minor matters. Our children deal with real things. We dislike teaching to read. We find that the weekly visit to the local cinema is the great apparatus for teaching reading. And it is surprising how soon the little beggars pick up reading with the view to following the adventures of the Wild West.

I have more than once seen wonderful exhibitions of handcraft done by children. We have no wonderful handcraft here. Few children here make beautiful things. We have a fine workshop with many tools—and the tools are used for utility only. The children make boats, clumsy boats that sail well, Red Indian knives, spears, and then back to boats again. I am weary of boats. I fall over them daily. My pupils of fourteen and over are past the boat stage (frequent regressions appear), and sometimes they make things of ornament. All this is especially interesting because I make many ornamental things out of hammered brass. Good things. The children are not inspired by my work. I say "Hurrah!" They all learn the technique by seeing me work, and later they may use it. At the moment they see no interest in making brass trays. On rare occasions a wave of tray-making sweeps through the workshop, the main attraction probably being that metal work makes such a splendid din.

Space is short, and I sum up briefly what I have learned from a free school.

Children freed from moral lectures and guidance are social beings who live in amity one with another. They do not respect things (even their own possessions

are respected for a day only. Last night six good bicycles were left out in the rain. Jimmy's brand new one won't be left out till the week after next).

Free children learn a lot and demand a lot.

Free children have manners but no etiquette. They seldom say "Thank you," but they would never imitate a stutterer or tie a tin to a dog's tail. In short, they are perfect darlings.

The Malting House School

THE work of the Malting House School, Cambridge, founded by Mr. and Mrs. Geoffrey Pyke, assisted by Mrs. Susan Isaacs, well-known in psychological circles, is doing some very valuable experimental work under definitely scientific conditions. Children are received from 2½ to 8 years, but no child is taken over 8 years, and the I.Q.'s range from 114 to 140—an average of 130 or 135. There are at present 20 pupils, for the most part the children of University men. The teachers, of whom there are four, are carefully selected for their experience in research and psychology. There is a house mistress in charge of the boarders.

One particularly delightful feature is that every boarder, however young, has a bed-sitting room to himself with his own toys in it, to which he can retire whenever he feels out of tune with the little community and play with his own things until he feels sociable again. Various rooms are equipped as craft shops, in one large room are all kinds of tools, saws, planes, hammers, nails, wood, and also science material. In another room clay, a potter's wheel, paint, drawing-paper, are provided; in another, the Crutchshank reading material and books; in another, globes, Times Atlas, typewriters, in the small kitchen there is equipment for cooking; in the garden, which has not to be kept tidy, rabbits, outdoor gymnasium, water, open-air shelter. In addition there is a large hall with stage and piano.

At first all the children were allowed to wander in and out of the rooms as they pleased, staying as long or as short a time as they liked, but it was found that the seniors rather interfered with the free expression of the juniors, consequently the children are now divided into two groups. The seniors have the free choice of the three upper rooms for the first portion of the morning. A great deal of this time is spent in the craft and science shop, which is in charge of a scientific research worker who has come specially from the Walden School, New York. In this room there is a stenographer sitting in a corner taking down every remark made by the children. There are already some hundreds of sheets of record which should ultimately throw a good deal of light on the working of a child's mind and his reactions towards the ordinary things of life. The children are apparently quite unaware that they are being watched and their remarks recorded, they are spontaneous and natural. The principle is for each child to find out things for himself, and I think quite the hardest thing in the whole experiment must be for the teachers to abstain from making suggestions as to how things should be done. Out of the number of children, only one boy

had been found to break and destroy, and this was traced back to wrong handling in the home.

When I visited the school I noticed that the children were most orderly in their work, and the only remarks I heard were made by the children to each other about their work. In the garden I found the younger group, who were busily making fires out of rubbish. During the Summer months the water is a great attraction, all have gum boots and wade about in a tank. During the winter the making of fire is a source of continuous interest. They are allowed four boxes of matches per morning. One small boy of three dropped his box of matches into the water and found they would not strike, he asked the teacher for another "striker."

Though there is perfect freedom and the children are allowed to express themselves, there are certain fundamental things in which obedience is demanded. A fire lighted in a shed had been followed by disastrous consequences, and an order was therefore given that no fire should be lighted in the sheds. On the morning of my visit two small girls took a pail in which they had lighted a fire into the shed. At once the teacher went across and without any explanation took away the pail and extinguished the fire, merely remarking, "You know we decided we could not light fires in sheds." After a moment or two of disappointment the two joined a small boy elsewhere, and recommenced building a bonfire.

The demand for reading and writing apparently does not come till about 8 years, unless there is someone at home who suggests the idea, then sometimes a child will come and say, "I think I ought to be learning to read and write."

Music, marching and eurhythmics form part of the morning's programme. On the day of our visit they were marching as soldiers, and suddenly introduced a military funeral, a chair being covered with a rug. The children asked the teacher at the piano to play a funeral march. Instead of the usual method by which the music directs the movements of the children, the process was reversed. The children demanded music appropriate to the type of movement they wanted to make. Quite obviously there were certain leaders among the children who took the initiative and acted as masters of ceremony.

There is no religious teaching of any kind, in fact the basic principle seems to be to allow the child to be as free from adult suggestion as is possible within the limits of safety. It is recognised that young children are primitives, and that they develop best through primitive, tangible things—fire, water, earth, tools, from which they make remarkable scientific discoveries for themselves.

The Influence of the Dalton Plan in England

By A. J. Lynch

(Author of "*The Rise and Progress of the Dalton Plan*," etc.)

INQUIRING visitors from abroad, as well as the curious at home, are constantly asking the question: How many schools in England have adopted the Dalton Plan?

The question is a difficult one to answer, and, indeed, cannot be answered with any degree of certainty, unless one has a thorough understanding of the main principles underlying the Plan. Briefly, they are three—first, the attempt to bring a greater amount of freedom to each individual child, second, the principle of Individual Work; and third, the idea of community life (Miss Parkhurst calls it "the interaction of social groups"). It is not proposed to elaborate these principles here; they are stated in order to assist in providing an answer to the above question. It is necessary to understand also that the Dalton Plan is not a method of teaching, but a method of reorganising a school, or part of a school, with the avowed purpose of allowing all three principles to operate at the same time. It is scarcely necessary to add that no claim is made for these three principles as the monopoly of the Dalton Plan, though it is quite likely that the third principle is a peculiar characteristic of the Plan itself. In all enlightened schools during the last twenty years the principle of greater freedom for the child has been fostered to a greater or less extent, aided by the abolition, which commenced in 1901, of examinations.

With characteristic national caution—or is it because of the American origin of the Plan?—English teachers who, though they have been attracted by the soundness of the principles of the Plan, and the possibility of their application to schools, have, nevertheless, refused to adopt the Plan *as a whole*. Almost universally, however, they have selected the principle of "Individual Work" and

applied it to their schools or classes. The idea of giving a child "something to do," though an essential part of the Dalton Plan, happens also to be what teachers everywhere have always done in the past. It displays the saving grace of being nothing new, though, as a general practice, it has become intensified and emphasised in almost every school since the advent of the Dalton Plan. The fact that it is an essential principle of the Dalton Plan is too seldom acknowledged. It should, however, be borne in mind that merely giving a child something to do is hardly what Miss Parkhurst, the originator of the Plan, intended the idea of individual work to convey. What she desired was that all children should, for some part of the day at any rate, be given something to do under conditions of greater freedom in order that they might be the better able to express their own individuality. Work is only individual, in her view, and in the best sense, when that happens. And that is why Miss Parkhurst feels that reorganisation is so necessary to this end. The fact that this essential principle of the Plan has been espoused by almost every teacher in the land is a great tribute to the Plan itself. Like the Montessori Method, which has not yet captured the imagination of all infants' school, it has had a remarkable influence on educational practice everywhere.

Bearing these things in mind, it is perhaps possible to give some sort of answer to the question asked above. The number of schools adopting the Dalton Plan *as a complete thing* is probably comparatively small; the number of classes in which the Plan is worked is much larger; but the number of schools practising Individual Work—an essential element of the Plan—is very large. It

probably includes almost every school in the land.

It is perhaps wise to refrain from making too extravagant claims, but it is safe to say that in some form or other the Plan is widespread, not only in this country but throughout the world. It is impossible, in a short article, to indicate in any detail what is happening with the Plan in the various countries of the world, but some idea of its ramifications may be gathered from the fact that Miss Parkhurst's book, *Education on the Dalton Plan*, has already been translated into seventeen languages. The influence of the Plan, therefore, is very remarkable.

Evidence of the spread of the movement at home may also be gathered from the announcements of educational publishers, where almost every book is recommended solely on the ground that it is suitable for "Individual Work."

Stronger evidence, however, is furnished in the recent report of the Consultative Committee on the Education of the Adolescent.* It is there stated (p. 43) "that the most hopeful methods of coping with it (i.e., "marking-time" at the top ends of schools) are to be found in the careful grouping of the older pupils (such as takes place, for example, when, as in some areas, children over 11 are accommodated in separate senior schools), in staffing on a scale which permits of individual teaching, and in the encouragement of independent work, so

* Board of Education Publications, H M Stationery Office, Kingsway, London

that children may proceed in a subject at a speed which corresponds with their attainments and ability." There could be no clearer statement of the Dalton Plan than this.

The Handbook of Suggestions* (1927) recently issued, while damning individual methods with faint praise, states quite clearly that, with older children, individual work is the appropriate thing. It is worth while reproducing the passage from the Handbook, if only for the delightful caricature it gives of the Dalton Plan and the wholesale misunderstanding it implies. Here it is (the italics are ours):—"An almost unlimited degree of freedom for children is sometimes advocated nowadays. *It has been proposed that they should choose their own subjects, make their own rules and timetables, work or not as they feel inclined.* Nothing of the kind is suggested here, except perhaps in the case of individual pupils who are nearing the end of their school life. [Why should these be allowed to "work or not as they feel inclined?"] There is a due mean between a system which counteracts the natural aspirations of children and one which in the name of freedom refuses them the aid and guidance they require."

Apart altogether from the delicate irony (so unusual in publications of this type) of this passage, it is a tremendous tribute to the widespread influence of the Dalton Plan that it should receive such notice in two of the most important documents that have come from the Board in recent years.

The Garden School

THE Garden School (Principal, Mrs. C. H. Nicholls), having outgrown its old home at Ballinger, has just removed to much larger premises at Wycombe Court, Lane End, near High Wycombe, in a lovely part of the Chiltern Hills. The house stands 550 feet above sea level, in 61 acres of park-like land, amid natural

surroundings of great beauty. Here the school will have scope for further developments and will be able to test out, in a new environment, those educational ideals, the application of which has won warm appreciation of its seven years' work at Ballinger, Great Missenden.

The Montessori Movement in England

By Claude A. Claremont, B.Sc.

ENGLAND has been a receptive soil for the Montessori system. The demand for training has been consistently maintained and Dr. Montessori herself has held more training courses in this country than in any other, except her own. The last was held at the London Day Training College—for the first time in an official building. Imagine a well-equipped lecture-hall, with sloping auditorium, filled by some 150 teachers, nearly all of long experience, coming from all parts of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland, some sent by their local authorities, most on their own initiative, having obtained special leave of absence to take the course. A few from distant countries—Australia, S. Africa, Holland, Norway, Italy, Germany, Austria. In the centre, a phalanx of nuns from Roman Catholic convents, especially in the North of England and in Ireland.

To this assemblage Dr. Montessori—undoubtedly the greatest educationalist of the age—expounds her method, as an American visitor said to me, like a High Priestess surrounded by her neophytes. Very remarkable lectures they were, full of the vitality, freshness and charm which are so conspicuous a feature of Dr. Montessori's impressive personality. As one by one the idols of the past lay shattered, and in its place stood some perfectly consistent and irrefutable truth—so obvious when seen that one can only wonder why it has so long escaped notice—I could not help my thoughts turning to all those other educational enthusiasts who were *not* present, an absence inexplicable in many cases, but more tragic in those, and alas among the young they are still many, in whom the deterrent force has been dissuasion.

The movement here is almost entirely a teachers' movement. Authority has been slow to move. Numerous professors have written books about the Montessori method, but not one has attended Dr.

Montessori's course, nor, apparently, spent even a week in a Montessori school! What has been achieved has come from below, urging officialdom forward. This is worth noting, since the very reverse has occurred elsewhere. In Holland, for example, the University has been the moving force; the influence percolating downwards to the schools. In Italy—recently, at any rate—it is Mussolini who has gathered teachers, "in the service of the state," to attend Dr. Montessori's training courses in Milan, and these are obliged to return to their districts and to test the method for a term of years. "Any excuse of not having understood will not be accepted."

In England, however, it was the teachers who read the book, the teachers who clamoured for training, and whose demand brought Dr. Montessori over; it was the teachers who bought the material—out of their own purses in the early days,* who used it in their schools, who fought the antagonism of inspectors, who achieved, after much uphill work, successful classes, where the practicability and efficacy of the method was established beyond the possibility of dispute. In London alone there are now more Montessori classes doing excellent work in private, secondary, state and church schools than it is possible to keep in touch with or to record. Over other towns in England the same is true. There are Montessori Societies, or Branch Societies, in London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Birmingham and Nottingham. While, apart from this, the influence of Montessori is being universally felt. Everywhere mechanisation is melting.

Some go so far as to say that the Montessori influence is an influence only. But a thing must be a thing in order to have an influence. And those who would

* Many parts are now on the "requestion list" of the L.C.C.

understand the influence do well to study the thing. Many preparing themselves to teach in the new schools decline to do this, as they have been advised that the Montessori method is too narrow (as a matter of fact, I have never seen a school where the whole of it is employed—or could be employed without difficulty in the short school day so often in favour) and accordingly they follow courses of training in which side-currents are studied, and the Montessori method hardly at all! Yet a true Montessori student can understand any of the numerous modifications, or adaptations, of it in about half-an-hour, and has some prospect of judging of their value; whereas the study of the thing itself takes a good deal longer than that. Hence to become broad it is really better to be narrow, otherwise one runs the risk of merely being shallow.

This is true of all serious studies—for example, pure mathematics is better for the young engineer than the most diversified courses in “applied engineering,” and it is not surprising to find the same holding true in a new and scientifically founded era in education. Above all, as Dr. Montessori insists, the preparation of the teacher must be of a spiritual and moral order. In her new Italian journal, *L’Idea Montessori*, published in Milan, she has recently written: “We have tendencies in our souls which are not good. . . . What our method demands of the teacher as her preparation is that she should enter into herself, and purge herself of the mortal sin of tyranny, uprooting that worldly complex of pride and anger which unconsciously encrusts her heart. To strip one’s self of pride and anger, and make one’s self *humble*, first of all; then reclothe one’s self in charity. This is the attitude we have to conquer.”

Struggling in the English movement there have been (though the situation is now resolving) two incompatible con-

cepts. One was the freedom of the child, the other the freedom of the teacher. Yet really these are not opposed. We were trying to apply two different freedoms to each. Montessori has shown us that the child’s freedom is a question of precision, of corresponding, that is, *precisely* to his needs. True, we might have thought of that before. When a patient is ill his freedom to get well depends on his receiving precisely that treatment (of diet, etc.) indicated by science, and no other. But such precision involves a discipline for the nurse; and so, when we set the child free, this involves self-discipline on the part of the teacher. Yet really we should understand that this discipline is itself a kind of freedom. The teacher’s freedom is to serve the child, and by serving him in such and such ways (verifiable daily as it happens from the facts), and in such and such ways only, can she achieve the heights. Every pursuit has a form. The musician is not free to bang aimlessly on the piano, nor the artist—even if futurist—to slash paint anyhow on to the canvas. And, indeed, teachers of experience are constantly finding that the children themselves correct them should they stray from the sound pedagogical path. For if the teacher makes a “pedagogical error,” the child, in consequence, ceases to work; or needs the merest trifle of compulsion; and this a sensitive teacher who has once glimpsed the fact that the child should be pushing her, and not she him, cannot long endure. We do not say that the Montessori method is a dead thing bound to stay still. On the contrary, it is a living thing bound to grow and to develop. But such growth and development will consist in adding to, refining and perfecting what has already been done; not in an arbitrary cutting across natural laws, of which the methods in use are only a reflection.

An Experiment in Individual and Group Work

(St. Martin's Girls' School, Dover)

By Ethel Cook (Headmistress)

"A handful of pine seed will cover mountains with the green majesty of the forest, and I too will set my face to the wind, and throw my handful of seed on high."

Situation of the School

No account of our daily life would be complete without mention of the situation of the school, for very fortunate indeed are we in our surroundings. The school is happily situated in a green valley, and from every classroom window views of the wide-sweeping Downs can be seen. Such an environment is invaluable in giving opportunities for contacting Nature, and for feeling all that it means to have an unlimited amount of sky—sun—air—space.

The name of the school, together with the Legend of St. Martin, suggested to us the idea of **Service** as our school motto. The numbers in the school are 387 children and 9 teachers. Numbers in the classes vary from 40 to 56. The class is the unit for organisation but not always for teaching.

Aim of the School

The all-pervading atmosphere of the school, the world in which the little citizen lives and becomes effective, must be such that it ministers to the wonderful thing we call **Growth**. There must be a full life for the little child in the school.

Our objective is to secure balanced development of the child's nature—spiritually, emotionally, physically and intellectually. It is, perhaps, necessary at this point to say a word about objectives, for in the Elementary School one feels very strongly that what is most needed is a new scale of values. What is of most value in Education? The things which have universal value; the things of lasting worth. The quest of such ideals will work a silent revolution in methods, and will immediately take

both pioneer and pupil into a different atmosphere.

In breaking away from traditional methods in Elementary Schools, and in doing experimental work, one must have the courage to do things badly, and this stage can only be faced if one has faith in one's principles. If fundamental intentions and fundamental attitudes are sound, results must follow, but there must be a genuine belief in one's philosophy—otherwise the result will be negativism. The psychological importance of launching the largest number of good habits must be kept in mind; the more closely Ideals and Habits approach each other, the more powerful will be the result.

The children must be given opportunities in their school life to show their true selves; the work must be such as will indicate their reaction to one another, and reveal what is within. The more one has to do with children, the more one learns to let them alone—of course, within limits. We must not erect barriers which are merely artificial limitations. There must be struggles, conflict, disappointments, before they can win through to balance, poise and harmony.

How often one hears: "I should like to work by the new methods, but . . . That "but" reveals all. There is a scale of degrees of sincerity, and excuses belong to the realm of self-deception. In my own case a revulsion against orthodox elementary teaching, with its artificial life, and the need for a more practical psychology led to the gradual evolving of our present plan of work, which is still in the process of "becoming."

Insistence on true values in Education bring one to the point of view that an experiment must have for its basis a belief in the child and in its infinite possibilities, and to build upon this belief it is essential that the teacher is prepared to make a study of different types and temperaments. Above all, she must have an understanding heart

I will now outline the plan of work in our School, which is an Elementary one of nearly 400 pupils, whose ages range from 5 to 16 years. We are fortunate in being able to watch the working of the experiment throughout the child's school career.

Work Done by the Lowest Class—5 to 7 Years

At this stage the atmosphere of the school is planned so as to give the little child opportunities of gaining self-control by means of games, rhythmic work, stories, etc., and the foundation for the later development of industry and concentration is laid as early as possible through capturing the child's interest by means of Individual Work in Reading, Writing, Number and Handwork. The little ones soon learn to make effort because of their absorbing interest in the thing they have to do. In the early stages the child's thinking is through doing, and his hands are kept busy working with clay, paint, pastels, scissors, and so forth.

Apparatus

As the aim of the teacher is to give the child freedom it follows that the apparatus must be self-corrective and carefully graded. With individual work in the 3 R's the little child has been given greater mental freedom and much more physical freedom. The child has "learnt how to move, which is of immeasurably greater importance than learning how to sit still."

There is a spirit of individual responsibility for their work, and for themselves, which is noticeable even with these small children. They learn to

make effort simply because they are so absorbed in the thing they are doing

The Child between 7 and 8 years

At this stage the child must be given many opportunities of gaining as many experiences as possible through music, drama, verse-speaking, rhythmic work, rambles, etc. There must be a mastery of the instruments of learning, but this can be acquired in an alluring way, so that the child is able to exercise initiative and to taste the joy of having wrestled with difficulties. It is also necessary to have the addition of group co-operation.

In the previous class the child's chief concern was her own work; now we find interest in the work of her companions a greater attraction, so that the plan of arranging the class in "psychological units" is one that supplies the child's needs at this stage, for her world is widening, and community feeling is beginning to dawn.

I will outline a morning's work for the eight-year-old, and in doing so I would emphasise the point that the child's day should have a certain amount of fixed routine. There should be a regular sequence of work daily, so as to secure rhythmic working, for the small child experiences happiness in doing the expected—that is to say, in travelling a well-known path; moreover, a fairly uniform routine is necessary if we are to avoid undue fatigue for her. This is the period when the child's consciousness functions through activity in some form or other, but there must not be too much excitement, neither must there be too many passive pleasures. In organising a class in groups the important thing to be created is the social atmosphere

Equipment

In this class we have four large tables, each 5 feet square, and they make the room look very cheerful, for they are enamelled in pleasing shades of yellow, green, blue and brown. Twelve chairs are arranged at each table, three on each side.

Subject Tables

Each table is associated with a special subject of the curriculum, and the arrangement is as follows:—

CORNER	SUBJECT
Blue Table .	Number
Yellow Table .	Literature and Composition
Green Table .	Writing and Spelling
Brown Table .	Reading

Each child has her own colour, viz., blue, brown, yellow or green, and on entering the school she goes to the table which she regards as her "home" table, and stops there until 10 o'clock. After 10 o'clock there is no rigid time-table, for, with the exception of a period of twenty minutes set aside for Physical Training, the whole of the period between 10 and 12 o'clock is devoted to Number, Writing, English and Reading.

Plan of Work

The child makes a plan of what she proposes to do, and by suggestion she is encouraged to visit the four tables during the morning. The initiative in the selection of her subject is entirely with the child. In practice it has been found that no real difficulties arise in the working out of the scheme. If all the seats at a particular table are taken the child does one of two things—she selects another subject or she goes to a side table. Instead of a disorderly crowd one finds a happy community gaining in self-control, and learning the pleasure of doing things for themselves. A question which will probably occur is the following: What happens if the child does not visit the four tables during the morning? Distress is noticed, for there is a real desire to travel round, and a somewhat sad little one complains that she has not been to one particular table. It is of the utmost importance that the child should have been trained how to work, and the little one soon discovers for herself that there is an end in view. She recognises that she cannot pass to the next piece of work until she has shown that she has completed the previous stage, and that a definite result has been obtained. So quickly does a child grasp this idea that we find she is the one who requests the

teacher to hear her read, or to hear her say her poem, or to question her number. She has progressed at her own rate, and evidently experiences satisfaction at having accomplished her purpose, and her purpose in life, at this particular time, is to be allowed to proceed to the next unit of work.

The Brown Table—Reading

The books are graded and entered on a list in a progressive order, so that the child knows clearly which is the next book she has to read. The method of approach is all-important; it is useless to give the children silent reading without at the same time giving them safeguards. Each child is provided with a note book in which she makes a daily entry. In this she writes the title of the book, the date, the pages read. Any little word which presents a difficulty is written down by the scholar, after she has asked help from one of her companions. The soundness of the day's work can be tested—the teacher can see at a glance what the child thinks she has done.

Green Table—Writing

This section is very simple to organise. We use four sets of graded copies which are systematic and progressive. They are arranged in portfolios and lettered A-D. These are home-made and are planned to take advantage of the child's interest, coloured pictures are mounted on the cards to make them more attractive. The length of the copy is increased considerably in Series D.

At this stage we begin to deal with the technique of Spelling. One day we discovered a small child hearing her neighbour spell the words on her copy, and great delight was shown when this was done without one mistake. What was once an incident has now become a practice, and the ability to spell all the words on the copy has now become the passport to the right of helping oneself to another copy.

In Spelling, as in Reading, we believe in the children using the sentence as a unit, so that at this stage we introduce

what we call Sentence Slips for the teaching of Spelling. In each series we have about 100 cards, and on each is printed a sentence such as:—

1. Out in the forest stood a pretty little fir tree
2. Next year the tree had grown a great joint, and the following year he was taller still

The child's procedure is as follows:—She first reads the slip, she then visualises the picture, next she learns to spell the words. When she thinks that she can write the sentence correctly she turns the slip face downwards, and writes in her little book. Having finished, the child marks her own work. We have found it a good plan to keep a separate set of books for this work, and the pride that the little one takes in marking her book is very delightful.

Blue Table—Number

This is set apart for those wishing to do work in Number, and the most striking feature noticeable in this corner is the small child's activity and her absorption in her task. In planning this section of the work the child's love of exploration is kept well in mind. The work must not be too easy—there must be a challenge to the child's mentality, and she must feel the pleasure of having accomplished a task when she has completed her work. Experience has shown that with the large numbers in the Elementary Schools the use of carefully selected, self-corrective, didactic material is preferable to the many things, such as counters, coloured sticks, that are sometimes used.

Some very scientific Number apparatus can be bought at The Auto-Education Institute, 46, Great Russell St., London, W.C.1.

In the classroom the child has a reference sheet showing the stages of the work for the class; this is her path, and she quickly discovers the way. The year's work is planned out in three stages. In passing I should like to say that the re-action of the group to the teacher is a much more natural and intimate thing than the artificial attitude noted when the whole class is the unit. All the work done in this way gives a growing sense

of power to the child, and inspires confidence. When adequate conditions are provided it is surprising to see how quickly children make their selection and settle down to business; their capacity for work is infinitely greater than is often supposed.

Yellow Table—Language

"Language is social in its origin, and is an important factor in developing social life."

As our aim is to foster the social spirit, language training is of very great importance at this stage. Frequent opportunities for conversation occur throughout the day, and whenever a child expresses herself appropriately she is gaining a real experience. During the morning period it is the practice for children to memorise poems which they select from the four portfolios. These contain selections of poems which have been read to the children by the teacher on some previous occasion, so that they become accustomed to the beauty of the voice as an instrument of interpretation. The selected poems are read for pure enjoyment, for we believe that the value of poetry lies in the child's response to the poem. We also have much rhythmic work for verse speaking.

Juniors, 8-9 years, 9-10 years

The work in this section is on similar lines to that outlined above, but with three group periods instead of four in the subjects Reading, Writing and Arithmetic. The environment still provides the means for self-education, and the whole of the morning session between 10 and 12 o'clock is given up to the tool subjects. In the afternoons opportunities are provided for work in Interpretation, Dramatic Work, Verse Speaking, Music, Literature, Geography, History, and Handwork. Nature rambles in the district give opportunities for expansion—for there are times when we rest from mental activity and give ourselves up to receiving impressions.

Notes on a Few Experiments in Elementary Schools

(We have made no attempt to make a survey of work in the Elementary Schools of England in which the majority of the nation's children receive free education from the age of 5 to 14 years. Such a task is beyond our powers. We have chosen a few schools known personally to us and have tried to show the variety of work that they are doing, and the quality of the new spirit that is stirring in them through their teachers.)

Infants' Departments

The Marlborough (L.C.C.) School, Draycott Avenue, Chelsea, London, S.W.3 (Infants' Dept.),

The Berkshire Road (L.C.C.) School, Hackney, London, E.9 (Infants' Dept.)

At these two schools can be seen good examples of the use of the "Chelsea" apparatus originated by Miss Jessie Mackinder for the teaching of the 3 R's. The apparatus is now used in many schools; it is inexpensive and can be made by the teachers themselves, if necessary, although sets of apparatus have now been placed on the market*. Descriptions of this work have appeared in former issues of *The New Era* (Oct., 1925 and 1927). Miss Mackinder, who was formerly head of the infants' department of the Marlborough School, is now working in a new school about which we hope to have something to report in a few months' time.

Medburn (L.C.C.) School (Infants' Dept.), Medburn Street, London, N.W.1

The Headmistress of this Infants' School, Miss M. Wellock, has around her an enthusiastic and mostly young staff who give of their time and money to the making of individual material, decorations, etc., for their pupils. Each teacher is left to make her own programme of work and there is no fixed time-table. There are 398 children between 3-7 years of age, and a staff of eight teachers. The number of children in each class averages 50.

Equipment. In two of the classrooms the "steps" and fixed desks have been exchanged for small tables and chairs. Here, as in all the rooms, the children move about freely. They use Montessori apparatus largely, and also some "Chelsea" apparatus. Many of the children have milk (paid for by the parents or by the L.C.C.), and they spread the table with embroidered cloths, wash up, etc., as part of their day's training in skill. In the summer all lessons are out-of-doors in the playground.

Opportunity Class. For exceptional children there is an "opportunity" class. In this class are gathered the children who are especially delicate, or who have to attend hospital regularly and so miss many lessons, or who are in some way "difficult." Here they learn self-discipline, good habits and sociability. They spend their time in many simple activities. Most of these children return to their proper classes after a longer or shorter period. The whole atmosphere of the school is gay and happy.

Ellerslie Road (L.C.C.) School, Shepherd's Bush, London, W.12

Multiplication Games. An attempt has been made, in difficult environment, to tackle the multiplication

"bugbear." Miss Mary Wild, who has originated the scheme, teaches a class of 36 children from eight to ten years old who have not mastered the ordinary eight-year-old 3 R's. Miss Wild describes her plan as follows—

"Twice one are two, twice two are four." Who has not wearied of the monotonous chant? Eyes roving everywhere, little hands restless, minds wandering to the fields or playgrounds and open spaces,—or the pencil travelling laboriously over the paper—"6 x 5 = 30. Now what are 6 x 6? I must add on six more." Six more strokes are made and the little one counts on, "31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36," muttering as he counts. Presently he wearies, for he has done it so often before, first with counters, then with match-sticks. Tommy Jones can remember it and has finished writing his table. When will it be playtime? And the mind is wandering from the written table as surely as it had wandered previously from the chanted one.

So I found with my class of subnormals—children between 7 and 10 years old and of mental ages varying from about 80-110 per cent. I was weary too. Why should they not play multiplication games? They had to know their tables, for sums done using their table-cards were laborious and very muddling.

We went outside. In three files they lined up, each three holding hands. The first three ran for, ward with a joyous shout, "One three is three." The next three followed, "Two threes are six," and so on, until they had built for themselves the table of the threes. If the class allowed it we went on, "13 threes are thirty-nine," and so on; if only 32 were present the last two would cry "Ten threes are 30 and two make 32." We built many tables so, enjoying the sunshine, seeing the numbers built and learning the tables by hearing them. No chant now, each child was anxious to lead his line.

Another day we fell into drill places; four ranks and about ten files. Each rank made a team and wore its own drill colour. The leaders were given chalk to score their points on the playground in front of them. Each file was given a number—rarely did I start with "one," for everyone knows four ones. Then I would call "four sevens," and the four children in the file given the number "seven" would answer "are twenty-eight," and, having answered, leave their place, run to touch the wall, and back again to the specified position, the winner scoring a point for his team. Great excitement prevailed and tables improved wonderfully. Comments and looks flew at the children who were dreaming or did not answer quickly and so lost their point for their team. This game was asked for in drill lessons and many odd times. It never palled.

* Obtainable from Philip & Tacey, High Street, Fulham, London, S.W.

PLAN OF RELAY GAMES

Reds	Greens	Browns	Yellows	
X	X	X	X	5 times
X	X	X	X	6 times
X	X	X	X	7 times
X	X	X	X	8 times
X	X	X	X	9 times
X	X	X	X	10 times
X	X	X	X	11 times
X	X	X	X	12 times

Another game I found well worth while was played thus—The children made a large ring and I stood in the middle with a net ball. The ball was thrown quickly to one of the children, a table question—"six fives," say—being asked at the same time. The answer was given by the time the ball was caught, and the ball was returned to me. If the answer was not quick enough the child who had been asked was "out" and had to sit down. More and more difficult tables were asked, sometimes it was necessary to ask a simple multiplication sum to find the winner, who was then put in charge of the "clever" children, whilst the backward—and often, consequently, less interested—children continued to play in the same ring as before.

As it is such an honour, from the child's point of view, to be in the "clever" ring, discipline is much more easily kept with a child play-leader than one would expect of such young children. The game is not so good as the previous game because it does not encourage team work. Each is for himself. But it does make a splendid change, and tables improve rapidly when it is played.

Both these games can be played in the classroom if they are altered a little. I had the misfortune to be in a "partition" room where noise was "not fair" to the class next door. The children sat up, very straight and very quiet, whilst I up-toed round and gently placed a hand on a child's head, asking "three nines?" If the answer came back, "27," I removed my hand and ran round the block of desks one way, whilst the child jumped up and ran round in the opposite direction, the one sitting in the vacated desk first being the winner, provided he or she had made no "bumpy noise." The loser then proceeded to find someone else sitting up very straight, put a hand on his head, ask a table, and so continue the game. It was stipulated that the questioner must know the answer to the question he asked.

In the case of the other game a small rubber ball was used, and tossed quietly to any child, a question being asked at the same time. If the answer came correctly the child scored a point for his team, the teams consisting of the children sitting in each block of desks.

As the games in the playground were good from the point of view of the freedom of voice and limb in playing, so these classroom games were, to me, a revelation of the possible restraint of a child. Almost literally they played like mice in the classroom—they were so anxious to be chosen to take part in the games. Of course, they could only be played for a few minutes at a time—but they were valuable minutes, for everyone listened keenly and the answers were concentrated on, more than on any multiplication chant they ever uttered.

Denmark Hall (L.C.C.) School, Camberwell, London

At this school a very remarkable set of apparatus has been devised by Miss E. M. Christie for the teaching of the 3 R's. It is called the "Rainbow" apparatus, and, as its name suggests, is founded on the magic of colour. The apparatus is inexpensive, much of it can be made by the teachers and children themselves, and certain parts can be obtained from Messrs Charles & Sons, Paternoster Square, London. Attempts to describe in detail the working of the apparatus have not been found easy, and we have thought it best to give a picture of the apparatus and to keep on file at the *New Era* office a detailed description of the work and a list of apparatus, which can be consulted by enquirers. The work is another shining example of what can be done when the teacher herself has vision.

The school has seven classrooms and seven teachers, each class averaging 53 in number.

The Sebbon Street (L.C.C.) School (Girls), Islington, London, N.1

Here the Montessori Method is followed. Although there were nearly 50 children in the Montessori class we visited, there was very little sound in the room, everyone was busy in the different groups. The steps and books used in the reading method seemed particularly well selected, no one series of either readers or apparatus being used. The alphabet and sounds, with accompanying pictures, were attractively and carefully arranged on the green tiles of the dado of the classrooms. We gathered that children soon read easily and choose for themselves books from the library. A good deal of attention is paid to rhythmic exercises, some of these exercises require much concentration, but the children respond with the greatest ease and accuracy.

Senior Departments

Middle Row (L.C.C.) Boys' School, Kensal New Town, London, W.10

The work in this school is a remarkable example of what can be done in one of the worst slum districts of London with boys coming from the poorest homes—many under-fed and inadequately clothed. Mr John Tansley, the Headmaster, describes the work as follows—

"This school is a pioneer of the 'New Curriculum Schools.' Dr Kimmins, late Chief Inspector of L.C.C. Schools, conceived the idea of experimenting with Handwork and Handicraft (more 'Doing' and less 'Listening' by the scholars) in an attempt to counteract the apathy that existed and to secure greater interests, greater effort, and consequently greater progress, than had been achieved in this difficult neighbourhood under the scheme of instruction generally in vogue. The curriculum was consequently re-organised in 1916.

The school motto is significant of our aims—"Man's greatest occupation is to be a man." The constructive ability inherent in most lads is one of the incentives used here to develop character. Legitimate pride in a well-constructed model is fostered, and the care and precision exercised by the scholar tends towards accuracy. The mechanical drawing which accompanies most of the practical work inculcates habits of neatness, tidiness and carefulness, and the "Dignity of Work" is con-

tinually emphasised. The "Team Spirit" enters as much into the work of the school as in the playing field, with consideration and thought for others as a natural corollary. The fullest use is made of the fact that the Creator in His wisdom has endowed the slow child as well as his more fortunate brother with two good eyes and two good hands capable of being developed to a high degree of accuracy and usefulness. There is a spirit of "freedom" between children and teachers throughout the classes and workshops.

Accommodation The accommodation consists of a practical work-room, practical science room, an engineer's shop, and a large carpenter's shop, in addition to the eight class-rooms. Thanks to the London County Council, the equipment of tools and machinery leaves little to be desired, and the installation of electric power in the engineer's shop within recent months has been a further inducement to the leaving lads who have entered into metal-working industries to continue their studies under the same instructor at the evening institute.

Curriculum The present curriculum in handicraft includes paper and cardboard modelling, stripwood work, bookbinding and printing, woodwork, metalwork, and practical electric science work. A close connection is maintained between the art and the practical work, and the making and reading of working drawings and blue prints, together with correct tool manipulation, is insisted upon. The carefully prepared syllabuses permit of individual progress, each lad in the upper part of the school works at his own speed through a series of connected models and is encouraged later on to suggest further models.

The time per week allocated to definite instruction of a practical nature is as follows —

Lower School

Classes 10, 9 and 8	
Handwork	160 minutes

Classes 7 and 6	
Handwork	200 minutes

Upper School

Classes 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1	
Metalwork	150 minutes
Woodwork	300 "
Practical Science	80 "

In addition each class has 80 minutes for mechanical drawing and another 80 minutes for art work. Printing and Bookbinding are largely incidental. Certain boys are too young to attend the shops with their class-mates, occasionally there are more boys present than can be accommodated in the shops. These are drafted into the printing and bookbinding section, working on their own, with occasional reference to the master concerned.

Staff The Staff in a school of this kind must be enthusiasts and carefully selected for their practical inclinations. Fortunately, this school is served by several masters of this type, whose enthusiasm makes a very strong appeal to the scholars. Among latest "Group Productions" may be mentioned a model electric railway (station included) over which trains run at the will of the accumulator, and a model of Shakespeare's house, the fires of which are lighted by electricity. The type boxes, frames, and hand presses in the printing shop have recently been constructed by the scholars; the type was provided by the L.C.C., and the scholars are busy printing the school hymns.

Parents In a neighbourhood of this kind, more so perhaps than in better localities, the school should be the centre of social improvement, and hence attempts have been made to forge a chain of friendship between the school and home. It was found that our scholars were entirely outclassed in the borough swimming gala. A school gala was therefore instituted and for the last four years has been held annually. The parents and old scholars attend, old scholars as well as present ones enter for the events. "Open Evenings" have been arranged and the parents invited to visit the school, not only to see the children's work, but also to see them actually at work in the various workshops. School journeys, for a fortnight's open-air education, have also forged links in the chain, and the feeling of antipathy felt by the parents to the school has considerably diminished.

Careers The question naturally arises "Has the change of curriculum justified itself?" The following statistics will undoubtedly provide the answer. Previous to the change, in one typical period, 73 boys left the school, one went into industrial work, one into commercial, and 71 into the streets as errand boys, van boys, costers, etc. In January, 1927, a member of the School Care Committee visited the homes of 240 old scholars who had left in 1924, 1925 and 1926, with a view to ascertaining the present occupations of the lads, in addition to other particulars. He found them employed thus —

Constructional	Distributional
Mechanical Engineers 19	Shop Boys 64
Motor Engineers 12	Van (Motor) Boys 18
Electrical Engineers 10	Railways 14
Metalworkers 12	Packers 7
Plumbers 6	—
Builders 7	103
Cabinet Makers and Carpenters 16	
French Polishers 5	
Printers 11	Sundries 15
Biscuit Makers 7	
Dyers 11	Out of Employment 3
Mattress Maker 1	
Harness Maker 1	
Artificial Limb Maker 1	
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It should be borne in mind that although we give the lad a fundamental knowledge of a working drawing, of tools and materials and their uses, we do not provide "vocational" training. We encourage "Pride in a well finished job" and arrange for plenty of practical exercises solely because it arouses interest, and interest ensures progress; progress incites to further effort, and effort means development. The L.C.C. are remodelling other schools in various poor parts of the Metropolis on similar lines.

Kirkstall Road Boys' Demonstration School, Leeds

The work of Mr John Eades* is well-known. In a school of about 500 boys, drawn from artisan families, Mr Eades has put into practice the Dalton

* "The Dalton English Course (For Individual and Class Work)," by John Eades, E J Arnold & Son. (A series of 8 books each containing 40 lessons, for pupils from 7 to 15 years)

Plan with great success. A general description of the work appeared in the October, 1923, number of *The New Era*. The following is a brief account by Mr. Eades of some of the latest developments in the school's work—

During the past three years a good deal of correlated and co-operative work has developed. Our specialist teachers have been working together on a scheme which embraces individual work and team work. It demands a good deal of individual research work in history and geography, brings in mathematics and English, involves a considerable amount of drawing, designing and decorative work, and a knowledge of architecture. It also includes hand-work in cardboard, wood, and occasionally in light metal.

Here is a very brief selection—

(1) *Handwork, Art and History*. Houses. Serf's dwelling, mediæval ale-house, Tudor house, a 17th century inn, a modern villa. All are made in cardboard and wood and decorated. Their historical development is carefully studied.

(2) *Handwork, Art and Geography*. American objects: Eskimo summer dwelling; Eskimo igloo, kayak, sledge, Indian wigwam, an encampment, a canoe, lumberman's cabin, grain elevator. These are treated in a way similar to the historical section.

(3) *Handwork and Mathematics*. Construction of models to specified data, such as cubes, prisms, cylinders, cones, etc.

(4) *Handwork, Art and English*. Illustrations for stories and magazine articles. Models of Shakespearean theatres, the carrying out of large decorations, and the making of various implements and weapons for dramatic work.

There is now in course of construction a large-sized model of the famous Kirkstall Abbey, Leeds, showing the various stages of its development from the middle of the Twelfth Century to the time of the dissolution of the monasteries. As a preliminary to the constructive work a number of boys have visited the Abbey together several times and have taken measurements and made sketches and notes on the spot. They have also read the necessary history and have studied the necessary sections of architecture.

This kind of activity is developing the co-operative spirit amongst the children, side by side with their individual work, and is also helping them to realize the close inter-relation of the various school subjects and the possibility of their extensive application.

Our readers would receive a good deal of valuable help along these lines from *Cardboard Modelling*, by Dixon and Browning (two of the Kirkstall Road specialist teachers), just published in two volumes by Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd.

The Western St. Mary's School, York Street, Marylebone, London, W 1

Decorative Art and Handicrafts. Here one of the chief features is art work, under the direction of Mr. Owen Oliver, and some remarkable work was shown at a recent exhibition. Pastels, paper and cardboard models, woodwork, Venetian iron-work, passe-partout framing, etc., were all included. There are still 60 children in each class, but it is hoped to divide them in the near future! Some of the line-cuts are among the best work we have seen and are particularly noteworthy when one remembers that the children come from very poor homes.

The children have their own printing press, on which they print, among other things, their magazine. Story writing is an important item in the English programme. The children are made familiar with the best short story writers and have learnt to write freely.

Welbeck Street School, Castleford, nr. Wakefield, Yorks

Mr. John Radcliffe is known for his work in the Dalton Plan and has sent us a brief note on the problems which are receiving his attention to-day—

Genesis. All expression of the individual—by art, by dancing, by writing, by physique, by speech—is mental in its conception. Thought is the root of every expressive gesture of the ego. The thought may vary, it may be concentrated, spontaneous, logical or illogical, sublime or ridiculous. If thoughts vary the individual's use of language will also vary. Then may we not assume that if we give the whole class the same English exercises, compositions or essays we must be handicapping the powers of some children to express and develop their own personalities? I am confident this is so. Beryl with the butterfly mind and a fairy-like gift for tripping, dancing phrases is injuring her self all the time she endeavours to write an essay on "The Climate of South Africa," or "The Trade Wars of the 18th Century." One could give innumerable examples.

The Method. Classify English exercises into as many sub-divisions as possible—e.g., mathematical, practical, journalistic, imaginative, romantic, adventurous, aesthetic, etc. By continuous observation, by detailed study of written and oral composition, home, parentage, family traits, sub-conscious expression, dreams, etc., group the children similarly.

Progressive exercises, compositions, essays, are devised under each group heading, and children work through the exercises best suited to their own individualities.

Naturally the whole scheme and its details of working cannot be shown in a short paragraph. Part of the failure with many children has been due to trying to make them think the same thoughts, even when by so-called individual methods we allowed them to think at different rates.

Sebbon Street (L.C.G.) Girls' School, Islington, N 1

The Senior department is divided into Upper and Lower divisions. In the Lower division the children work on a modified Dalton Plan for three days a week, called the "choice" periods. The subjects taken in this way are Science, History, Geography, English, Grammar and Arithmetic. The assignment sheets showing the work for three or four weeks are hung on the walls for all six subjects, and each child chooses her own method of work. A small library in the classroom contains the necessary books, and work material of all kinds is also available. Each child has a deep wooden tray in which to keep her exercise books and apparatus.

The Upper division, consisting of four classes, also employs a modified Dalton Plan in four subjects—Science, History, Geography and Formal English. These subjects are taken by specialist teachers in four subject rooms. In each room the specialist gives one set lesson a week to each group and the rest of the allotted time is given to individual work on the prepared assignments.

(Continued on page 98.)

The Child's Level

By Herbert McKay

(Author of "Educate your Child")

I AM a little scared when I hear people talk about the child's level. There is, as a rule, an idea of inferiority at the root of such talk. However subtly the idea may be disguised it is usually there. It is not the inferiority of the adult that is assumed, that one could understand and forgive, but the inferiority of the child.

A few days ago I wanted a copy of White's *Natural History of Selborne*, and I bought a copy at a second-hand shop. It was quite attractively got up, but when I came to look into it I found that it was not White at all. It was a "school" edition. Fortunately the Fifth of November was at hand!

But this is the kind of thing we do to children in attempting to get down to their level. That book was robbed of its grace, its rhythm, and its exuberance. There was nothing left that was of any use to anybody. I felt myself cheated of a shilling. I wonder if any children have been robbed by that book of the chance of knowing White's "Selborne" affectionately.

I have to look through a great many speeches made on school speech days. Half-way through there is often a reporter's note, "addressing the boys and girls," and then follows something peculiarly banal. There are, of course, honourable exceptions, but the attempt to get down to the child's level is almost invariably a failure. I read a piece of advice in one of these speeches that gave me a thrill. The advice was "Dig like blazes!" That as it stands might have made the reputation of the speaker. I regret to say that he spoiled it by giving it all kinds of figurative applications. The figurative stuff I forgot as I read it, but I have thought many times since of what we might do if only we were literally to dig like blazes.

When I use the expression "the child's level," I mean it quite literally. Why should we hanker after the elusive figurative ideas and reject the easy literal ones?

The correct position in working with children is to have your eyes as nearly as possible on a level with theirs. That can only be done by sitting on a chair of the same height as those used by the children. The difference in height between adults and children is then so much reduced that it ceases to matter. There is no need, for example, for children to crane their necks at an awkward angle when talking to the teacher.

It is hardly necessary to say that one does not sit apart from the children, but in the midst of them. There is no fun in getting to the child's level if you lose horizontally what you gain vertically. And when I have to move from one table to another I do it as unobtrusively as I can so that my ungainly height may not suddenly overshadow the room. Not that I am specially tall; it is merely that I do not wish to obtrude.

Half the secret lies in furniture. I am in the fortunate position of having made my own school furniture. I could not buy what I wanted, so I made it. The tables are quite flat, about three feet six inches square, and they are enamelled blue or green. The colours are light, so as to be attractive but not glaring. The chairs are solid and square. They are enamelled in bright colours, reds, yellows, bright green, and blue. Each chair has a cushion, just thick enough to do away with the harsh discomfort of plain wood. The tables are of different heights, but I have found that there is no need to vary the height of the chairs. I can sit comfortably enough on a chair made for a child of six. The chairs and tables are

fitted with "domes of silence," so that they may be moved easily.

Most teachers have to put up with school furniture supplied by people who have no intention of using it themselves. All sorts of people are consulted, except those who are directly concerned. The result is not, I think, happy. School furniture is generally ugly and uncomfortable. It has a worse fault still, it keeps teacher and pupil apart.

Tables and chairs may be scattered about the room, but desks are made to be placed in rigidly straight lines. This introduces the drill idea into the classroom, and many schools are soaked with it. A desk out of alignment is an offence, a pupil is fixed to one spot—but there is no need to go further. We are all, unhappily, familiar with the extent to which the drill idea dominates schools. To use tables and chairs in place of desks would be a step away from the drill idea. We should at least break up the rigid lines. Sliding castors would make it next to impossible to keep the lines, the class-room would assume the pleasant, leisurely appearance of a studio or any other place where good work is done. There is an incidental advantage, in that tables and chairs are readily moved to keep pace with the march of the sun, so that it is easy to take full advantage of light and sun.

In a room furnished with desks there is no room for the teacher beside the pupils. The teacher fits badly into the desk. He is uncomfortable, and the pupil is glad to be rid of his overwhelming presence.

The teacher's desk places him above the level of the children. That is, I think, sufficient condemnation of it.

On the child's level I find that I am on quite different terms with children. We are friendly. At school I remember I was always a little in awe of the master. However kind he might be, he was never quite a fellow being. There was a wide space round him which I might cross only at my peril. To touch him gave me almost a shiver.

On the new terms children come and put their hands on my shoulder or they

look into my eyes. A day or two ago I was sitting in a chair when a boy of six came up to me. "Excuse me," he said, "I wonder if you would mind me having my chair." "I was just going to move," I said. And as I got up he turned to me: "I am awfully sorry to trouble you, you know," he said.

Children are so easy and natural when there is no dominating figure over them.

The class-room ideal is work—steady, persistent work. Moving from table to table it is not hard to avoid interruptions. Bending over a child gives him the impression of something outside, an interference that is rightly resented. I have myself uttered and have heard sighs when the shadow was removed.

I have found nothing of that kind since I have kept down to the child's level. My presence does not interrupt the work of busy children. The fact that the teacher is working with the children, doing the same kind of work, gives an altogether different feeling. Work is not something imposed from without by an apparent idler. It is a common activity in which the teacher has a natural and equal part.

Nowhere is the idea of keeping on the child's level more helpful than in hand-work lessons. Simply to sit with the children and do the same kind of work they are doing is often the teacher's part. I have found no way so useful for cultivating habits of careful work and industry. But where would be the use of it, if you were enthroned in solitary state a foot or so above your pupils?

There is one point I would revert to, the question of class-room furniture. As teachers I think we are to blame for not being more insistent in matters of this kind that affect our work. It is not always easy; but we have been content or we have acquiesced where we should not have acquiesced. We have allowed committees to do for us what we alone can do properly. We know the books we want, we know the materials we want, we know the furniture we want. We shall get them when, as individuals, we are sufficiently insistent.

Present Day Psychology in its Relation to Education

By Margaret T. Scott

FIRST I must make clear why I am attempting to deal with such a wide and all-embracing subject as that of the title in an article comparatively short

This article is to the whole subject what a signboard is to the road it indicates. Comparing length or possibilities the likeness is negligible, but the direction at least is the same (we hope). Walk from the sign-post and you will immediately leave it behind, but you may discover for yourself the length and possibilities of the road.

The article then attempts to sum up the findings from some weeks only of concentrated work and investigation on present-day psychology in its relation to education.

I offer the findings of my investigations because I have probably been in touch with more people who are researching in education and psychology in the last few weeks than is usual—university professors, principals of training colleges, teachers, psychiatrists, secretaries of associations or institutions interested in education from various aspects, in child welfare, health, psychological research and mental hygiene. I have heard their opinions in a sufficiently short time and sufficiently recently for them to be considered as all being “present day”

May I now give what seems to me to be the necessary qualifications of the indication on my signboard so that these being kept in mind I may then put down my findings in a straightforward way as if they were absolutely and not relatively reliable. At the conclusion of the article a list of names and addresses is appended to whom reference can be made for exact information on any of the subjects referred to

Imagine that I have just had an interview with A.—(1) It is only one interview and, in spite of mutual sympathy in aims and enthusiasms often discovered,

still an interview. (2) What A is really doing and what he thinks he is doing may be, and often are, identical, sometimes only partially so, and let us hope with any sincere and thoughtful educationalist or psychologist they cannot be quite distinct. (3) What those qualified to judge think that A is doing—being limited by A's greater or lesser power of explaining himself and by their own greater or lesser powers of understanding, assimilation and interpretation. (4) In this field we cannot ask for “results.” There are as yet no results in a final sense of this subject as a whole. We have neither sufficient data nor the knowledge to interpret that which we have (5) I have almost certainly not been able to communicate with various people whose opinions or whose work might have thrown great light on the subject (6) My time for investigation has been limited.

Psychological Work and Mental Testing in Schools

In London Dr. Cyril Burt, Professor of Education of London University, specialising in psychological work, and Dr. Spearman, of University College, are the moving spirits, and chiefly responsible for the direction of various kinds of mental testing in the schools and for the training of students in testing.

Dr. Burt is also psychologist to the London County Council, and so is concerned not only with the administration of tests but with any psychological problem that may arise in the schools. Important work in these directions is also being carried out by Dr. Spearman and his research students. Dr. Carey, Dr. Wohlgemuth, Dr. Philpott, and many others have carried out tests and other investigations in schools under Dr. Spearman's guidance.

If a teacher requires advice in regard to a child who seems dull, backward, nervous, or mentally defective, he may refer the child to Dr. Burt, as the Council's Psychologist, and Dr. Burt, after having obtained all the available particulars about the child's health, history and home conditions from the Care Committee, the attendance officer and the school medical officer, or whoever may have knowledge of the child's family, then interviews the parent and tests the child, and sends forward a report to the teacher, or to the Organiser of Children's Care, or whoever may be able to be of assistance in carrying out the recommendations.

In the case of delinquent children attending Council Schools or sent to the Council's Remand Homes (see also page 92: Central Association for Mental Welfare, etc.), the Magistrate may apply to the Council for a special psychological examination to be carried out by Dr. Burt. Even for delinquent cases there is at present, unfortunately, no officially recognised channel of communication between the teacher and the probation officer.

During recent years there has been a tendency to deal with children at an earlier age and stage before ever they come before the Police Court. Thus parents or teachers may now apply through the Organiser of Children's Care to have a psychological examination carried out without the intervention of the Court.

The Committee for Research in Education of the British Psychological Society have recently sent out a preliminary questionnaire to certain heads of schools under the Board of Education enquiring as to the extent to which they use mental tests in regard to promotion, scholarships, etc. The result of this warranted a fuller questionnaire being sent out to county schools all over the country on the subject. The result of this may be published in the April number of the *British Journal of Psychology*.

In the years 1922-25 the children who were about to leave school in several

schools in the King's Cross area (where possible employment is very varied) were tested by specialists sent from the **National Institute of Industrial Psychology**, under Dr. Myers, for vocational selection. The schools' Councils, and through them the parents, were advised of the results of the tests. A fair percentage of the parents followed this advice as to possible careers for their children. All the children who were tested (whether they took the advice or not) are being followed up by the Institute for four years. Already, after a year and a half, there is a noticeable difference in the two sets of children. The majority of those who followed the advice given are happy and have not changed their occupations—others have changed once, sometimes to work of a similar character. Whereas some of those who found employment regardless of the expert advice have already changed their occupations three or four times.*

The above Institute hopes to set on foot (after a great deal of preliminary spade-work) vocational tests of a rather different character (those used in elementary schools were largely tests for various kinds of manual dexterity) for adolescents of 15 and 16. Later they hope that suitable vocational tests will be produced and standardised for all persons up to 20.

The Institute will send a psychologist to do intelligence and vocational testing in private schools by request and children may always be brought to the Institute by appointment.

In a rapidly increasing way teachers themselves are carrying out psychological investigations. More and more teachers, both in elementary and in secondary schools, are taking up problems in psychological research with a view to obtaining higher degrees (M.A. or Ph.D.) or from purely scientific motives. For example, investigations have been carried out in special disabilities in reading, in arithmetic, on judgments of temperament

* For Report of this work see "A Study in Vocational Guidance," Industrial Fatigue Research Board—Report No. 33 (1926, 4/-), H.M. Stationery Office, Kingsway, W.C. 2

and character, on causes of delinquency and neurotic disturbances in children.

Intelligence tests seem to be given in a great many schools but rarely instead of examinations. They are used to help in various groupings, in "higher tops" schools, for example, in the placing of children coming up to a secondary school or in connection with scholarship children. There is not yet any kind of general recognition of tests as supplements to or substitutes for examinations, though this is beginning. For example, at the Maria Grey School scholarship children are tested at their entry, and the Middlesex County Council allow up to two points to be added to the results of the scholarship examination from the results of the intelligence tests given by the school. Dr Burt's Tests are used. (This makes a greater difference than would at first appear in the final weeding out.) After five years these children are to be again tested. If the predictions and grouping resulting from the first tests are then found to be reliable, the Middlesex County Council will possibly feel justified in giving official recognition to the tests.

Teachers wishing to carry out group tests may requisition those placed on the Council's Requisition List. Those most commonly used are Dr. Burt's *Northumberland Tests: 1925 Series*, particularly because these include specially standardized tests in scholastic subjects. For individual tests those in Dr Burt's *Handbook of Tests for Use in London Schools* are largely used. Dr. Ballard's tests, particularly the reading test, and those supplied by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology are also in use.

Miss Coster, co-principal of Wychwood School, Oxford, and author of *Psycho-Analysis for Normal People*,* writes on the subject of psycho-therapy in schools that much investigation is needed, and questions the desirability or even the possibility of "analysing" the pre-adolescent child and considers that the analysis of the adolescent presents peculiar difficulties. "Ordinary adult analysis is a loosening of the rigidities

of the mento-emotional nature to permit of re-education. In the child the lower mental and emotional nature is not rigid but merely undeveloped and perhaps partially blocked. Experience has shown that a single half-hour's talk with a child—carried on with not less but perhaps even more technical knowledge than as needed in adult analysis—may remove the block and set free natural educational forces . . . and the subsequent expansion of the capacity may seem out of all proportion to the therapy."

"With girls, I have found that a man can often achieve quicker results than a woman. I do not think this is strictly a matter of sex in the narrower sense of the word, but is due to the fact that many girls are inhibited by a slightly (or seriously) wrong relation to the father which rights itself by the formation of a natural and normal sympathetic relation to the father-substitute, viz., the analyst, and the fact that the analyst shows an understanding far beyond what the child has been accustomed to from any grown-up . . . re-adjusts her ideas of the whole male sex. . . . Psycho-therapy applied to children needs, I repeat, more skill not less than is needed for adult practice."

Some important work is being done in standardizing attainment tests in Kent and Suffolk; in statistical psychological investigation of intelligence tests and in tests of temperament and character (see special notes page 95). As the Committee for Research in Education is setting on foot a special enquiry as to testing being done in county schools throughout the country, the full results of which will be available in a few months' time, I will not give further details here.

It is possible for the students of the Training Colleges or of the Education Department of King's College to use the university laboratories for experimental psychology while others do practical work at the Tavistock Clinic (see page 91) or on their own demonstration schools. Any investigator, whether teacher, post-graduate student or other

* Oxford University Press, London, 2/6

person, wishing to carry out a psychological research in the schools or institutions of the Council must apply to the Education Officer, who refers the matter for report to the Council's psychologist, Dr. Burt. If the inquiry is sanctioned the investigation is under his general supervision. Students taking psychology as part of their degree naturally do practical work in the laboratories at King's, University or Bedford College.

Psychological Research and Mental Tests in Training Colleges and at the University of London

The London Day Training College and three other Colleges are under the London County Council and part of the University of London. The University have now arranged that students for the teacher's diploma may take *either* history of education or educational psychology as a special subject (they have all, of course, taken elementary courses in these subjects). As well as lectures practical work including the technique of testing is required of these students. They watch Dr. Burt giving clinical demonstrations in testing and examining typical cases which are similar to the demonstrations that a medical student would have in the hospitals.

The National Institute of Industrial Psychology hopes later to use some of Dr. Burt's students in its vocational testing work in schools. The Institute has also done and is doing important work in researching into the question of fatigue and other psychological conditions of industrial life. It is working out tests for industrial selection—aptitude tests for more or less specialised branches of industry.

For those who are training to be teachers, the accent seems to be more and more on the all-importance of first-hand and systematised observation of children, and on "educational psychology" and Principles of Education or Method as integral parts of one another. The report of a joint sub-committee of the Research Committee of the British Psychological Society and the Training College Associa-

tion contains the following remarks:—"Opportunities for demonstrations and experiments are as essential to a course on psychology as they would be in chemistry or in medicine." "The more important (experiments) are those that deal with examinations, observation and mental testing of the individual child." The whole report is extremely helpful to anyone interested in psychology and education as it shows very clearly what the sub-committee of these two intimately concerned bodies consider necessary and what advisable for the teacher in making.

The Principals of Training Colleges whom I have met emphasise to their students that their work at college can only be a beginning—the field being far too vast, the state of knowledge of educational psychology too inchoate, the students themselves too immature and lacking in experience to be able to assimilate and make use of much that is known, but that their little knowledge, if used, not as a final pedestal, but as the first steps of a stairway mounting out of sight, would be not dangerous but animating for the rest of their lives.

In spite of this there are Training College students who after one lecture on the intelligence, two or three on different kinds of tests, go into schools cheerfully to "do tests." They feel however that they "do not get anything out of it," and that it takes time, as does also a detailed study of a particular child, from the serious business of passing one's examination and of knowing (at any rate until the examination is over) the correct definition of the multifarious psychological terms. They take Psychology, Physiology and Method, but never really grasp the integral inter-relationships of the three, nor that they could be the illumination of all that they do in their own lives and in their teaching. Because of their age and generation they would rather "do" than understand, and they leave their Training College still without this understanding.

In most Training Colleges the observation of children—especially in their free periods—and the keeping of records

of the children's activity, muscular, moral, scholastic and social development are made the basis of psychological work. The very facts that the records are at first almost entirely blank, that countless opportunities for real education are lost, bring home to the students their ignorance of the possibilities, their incapacity to interpret what they do record and, in this way, the psychology lecture becomes truly a "response to a felt need."

The University psychological research work at present largely sets the tune as to what we shall be taught in psychology in Training Colleges, and they in turn set the tune as to how the children shall be taught.

Here follow some titles of research work that has been undertaken recently or that is in progress now at the University. Almost all complete work is published in the *Psychological Bulletin*, in *The British Journal of Psychology* or in separate pamphlets

In progress under Dr. Aveling at King's College—Subject Feelings and Conative Response; Influence of Conation on Mental and Manual Performance; Conative Control, Personal Situations; Memory (retentivity); Influence of Affection on Perception; Creative, Aesthetic and Literary Appreciation; and Self-Knowledge.

Last year's research under Dr. Spearman at University College:—Concepts; Employment of Example, Motor Skill; Bi-lingual Education; A New System of Testing Intelligence; Retentiveness in Memory; Pure Memory and Habit Memory; Mechanical Ability; Psychology of Error.

It will be seen that the University Research Departments in Psychology are following lines that should be of use to the educationalists eventually.

The branches of psychiatry and neurology of the Psychological Department of the Royal Society of Medicine are of chief use and interest to doctors of medicine

CLINICS.

(a) Tavistock Clinic

Children needing special treatment because they are very nervous, difficult, backward or mal-adapted in some way are brought to the Tavistock Clinic. Many of them come from the L C C Schools sent by advice of teachers or probation officers. The fee is never more than 5/-, often less, and at times nothing.

Several doctors, specially qualified for the work, give their time on different days of the week—to mention a few, Dr. Alice Hutchison, Dr. Crichton Miller, Dr. Hamilton-Pearson. They belong to no one psychological school but each doctor tries to treat each case according to its needs and to his or her light. The treatment may be long or short and the Clinic is in a position to recommend special homes or schools, if necessary.

At present there is not a member of the staff specially qualified to do vocational or other testing, but children in special difficulties as to choice of career are sent on (though still under the Tavistock Clinic) to the National Institute of Industrial Psychology.

The first report of the Clinic—after seven years' working—is just published. The Clinic is anxious not to "populamise" its work or to give neat "answers" or to claim that it has as yet found answers in a sweeping way to the problems of this century. The report is very strongly recommended.

(b) The Marylebone Dispensary

This is a clinic for nervous and just "not-well" children. Dr. Madge Lowenfeld, a children's physician, is responsible for its inception.

Dr. Lowenfeld wishes to bring into being a science of diagnosis and cure that shall really be preventive. She has been so impressed by the number of children just "not quite well" who so often are not satisfactorily dealt with and sink into definite illness of body or mind or just drag along never in perfect functioning.

She feels strongly that physically as well as mentally the child is in no way a small adult nor the adult an inflated child. The child's body is not the adult's in miniature but really *different*. Many physical and hence mental disorders are due to a perhaps quite temporary disproportion in the development of one or other organ, to hyper or hypo secretion or other physical causes leading to mal-adjustment. These must be explored before the child is turned over to the specialising psychologist, especially as in children the mental and physical side of the nature seem to be more closely connected than in the case of the adult (of the child acutely disappointed of some expected treat who then runs a genuine temperature as a result of this disappointment).

Dr. Lowenfeld, after having discussed the child fully with its parents and made a thorough physical examination, which can be done almost entirely without his knowledge, sees him alone. She has a collection of fascinating toys, which are all selected as means of testing or exploring the child's adaptations, complexes or intelligence. She is "busy" at her desk, and he is left to play with certain toys specially chosen beforehand in view of the known case. So the psychological testing

(c) **Guy's Hospital Clinic**

Dr. Gillespie For cases needing hospital in-patient treatment or particular observation as well as for those coming for occasional treatment

(d) **Maudsley Clinic**

Dr. Mapother. For more marked cases

(e) **The Child Guidance Council**

Most of the work of the Council is at present merely projected. In actuality, thanks to a grant from the Commonwealth Fund (U.S.A.), however, three workers have been sent on an inspectional tour to the States and four others are at present there. Beside the secretarial staff there is an educational psychologist, a teacher who has studied psychology in England and U.S.A. It is not likely that the first clinic will be opened before next autumn it being necessary that there should be an informed demand amongst teachers and parents.

The Council's objects are—

(1) To promote the establishment of Child Guidance Clinics, the treatment there given to children and adolescents being a legitimate addition to the School Medical Service and not a new departure for the Local Education Authorities.

(2) To encourage the provision of University courses of psychological instruction suitable for social workers and to afford facilities for practical psychological training. It is hoped that later the Child Guidance Clinic will be attached to a university.

(3) To demonstrate the need for trained social workers in visiting clinics and other institutions concerned with mental welfare.

(4) To carry out investigation upon the social and psychological problems involved.

The Council desires to familiarise the public with the need for an early diagnosis, for skilled treatment and advice and for the study of the individual personality and environment of mal-adjusted children—who may be maladjusted through causes physical, mental, temperamental, lack of wholesome interests and pursuits or from harmful or perverted habits.

The Child Guidance Clinic will be to a large extent a clearing house. Mentally defective children or more marked cases of mal-adjustment, delinquents and those requiring hospital in-patient treatment will be passed on to the Societies, Homes, etc., specially fitted to deal with each type.

(f) **Central Association for Mental Welfare**

There are now 51 local Associations for the home and other care of defectives, self-governing but affiliated to the Central Association. Over 88,670 cases are being treated; there is an average of 700 new cases a year. These cases are defectives, "borderland" cases, those of adolescent instability; of the results of lethargic and other forms of encephalitis, neurasthenia, dementia praecox, and insanity.

Another object of the Association is "to make provision and assist in the training of teachers, visitors, special workers and others interested in the care of defectives." Courses have been arranged and well attended for medical officers, teachers, attendants at institutes and supervisors, and it is hoped to have others under Local Education Committees when classes for mentally deficient or backward children are being started.

The work is much hampered by the lack of suitable training homes or "Schools of Recovery" or provision, by any recognised and suitable authority, for

those suffering from disorder of the mind that is not curable. There is not at present machinery for the adequate investigation of adolescents charged with offences against the law where there is reason to suspect the presence of mental disorder and abnormality.

The Association also wishes to provide for skilled medical and psychological supervision, and after-care, for all cases—at present this is lacking, except for cases of serious crime.

(g) **Pioneer Health Centre**

Although the last section dealt largely with work amongst more or less serious cases of mental instability, the keynote to all the clinical work referred to is *prevention*—the adjustment of conditions in the individual and his environment so that he shall be capable of complete fulfilment of his potentialities. This seemingly negative sounding idea is in reality one of the most constructive and animating of our time. It is educational, gives common ground to parents, teachers, psychologists, psychiatrists, doctors, social workers of all kinds who may differ, or appear to differ, in their means in greater or less degree, but who agree as to the end. Even in our present state of ignorance the immense possibilities for the prevention of the waste of human health and happiness are recognised, and research leading to knowledge that will prevent disease, mental, physical, moral or social, is urgent.

This means a study, as yet hardly begun, of normal people. Do we know what is the normal child and what should be expected of it normally at its various stages? Do we know what is perfect health? Can we assess the beginnings of ill-health and abnormality when we see them? Have we the norms for the necessary comparison for people generally or individually? How much of his 5½ years does the medical student give to the scientific study of health and normality? How many books has he read and how much practical work with normal people from babyhood upwards has the analyst, psychiatrist or psychologist experienced? Agreed that no one is absolutely normal and that there is no such thing as general normality, there yet remains the individual who is so nearly completely functioning as to seem to himself and others to be adapted, healthy and happy—his adaptation implying a continual dynamic balancing and poise. We can recognise this when we see it in the baby though it is more difficult to see with every additional year. The study of normal people beginning, as it must for "Prevention," with the tiny baby, from the moment it is conceived even, is the experimental psychology that many feel is now most needed.

I have dwelt on this point because it has emerged very strongly in the talks that I have had with various people connected with the clinics. Although they do not necessarily see eye to eye with each other as regards their psychology or their methods of working, many of them respect greatly and take a deep interest in each other's work, feeling that there must be a Highest Common Factor if the work undertaken is really constructive. Most of these workers feel that the new constructive work is so big that however passionate are their own convictions, inevitably there must be many more passionate convictions needed to make the whole, and so they continue to work leaving the Highest Common Factor to emerge through its own vitality.

Hence I include the Pioneer Health Centre under this section, as it seeks the health of the whole individual though it is by no means a mental clinic in the sense of others mentioned. It is an "adventure in social medicine."

The founders of the Centre feel strongly that it is only the healthily conceived and born child who can ever hope to grow into a perfectly healthy individual, "once conceived in unsuitable soil it is already too late." Hence the membership of the Centre—which is for the promotion of health in the community—is by family.

The organisation has the possibility of becoming self-supporting as the people realise that the "Worker's Banker is his Health," and they are willing to pay for what they appreciate. The Centre wishes to inculcate in the individual responsibility towards his own and his children's health. Quotations from one of its publications will show in what ways membership of the Centre is trying to bring about these conditions.

Membership (6d a week per family) provides—

- (1) Periodic medical overhaul for each member of the family
- (2) Periodic dental overhaul
- (3) A parent's clinic where advice hitherto unattainable can be had by parents on all matters dealing with parenthood and family life
- (4) Use of a holiday nursery. Here on occasions children may be left on Saturdays or Sundays to enable the parents to continue to enjoy together the companionship of the earlier days of marriage so that mutual understanding between the parents (the proper environment for the child) can exist
- (5) Anti-natal clinics. Here attention is not only paid to the physical health of the expectant mother but some education of both parents as to the meaning and purpose of parenthood is attempted
- (6) Baby Clinics
- (7) The use of premises for the formation of a Family Club

After a year's working the Centre is achieving—
(1) A practical beginning in the investigation of the problem of proper conjugal relationships. (2) To some extent the re-integration of the family without which the fullest psychological development of the individual cannot be obtained. (3) The provision of a Centre for the early detection of disease and for the systematic study of the healthy under natural modern conditions.

Under the headings of "Prevention" and "Health" mention should be made of the research work with normal pre-school children being carried out by Dr J A Hadfield, in the Bethnal Green Guardians' Home. Through study of these and other normal children, in their first years, which has only just begun, Dr Hadfield hopes that light may be thrown on the prevention of psycho-neurosis in later life.

Dr Hamilton-Pearson and others are hoping to start a training course of three years (or one post graduate) to create a new, and much needed, profession for which the demand will grow as the trained members are available. The course would provide matrons for Homes or schools, social workers of various kinds, trained in practical psychology and its relation to physiology and social sciences. At this training centre the teacher or social worker would be

able to learn the necessary preventive medicine to balance up her previous training. The doctor in the same way would be able to take suitable courses in educational and practical psychology to balance up his.

Dr Hamilton-Pearson feels strongly (with others) the need for individual, untrammelled experimental work—practical and non-practical, beginning always from the child—not tied by connection with any official body, medical or educational. Dr. Pearson also works closely with Mr. Clarke Hall of the Juvenile Courts.

(h) CLINICS FOR ADULTS

Adler Clinic

has as yet no direct dealings with children. The "office" is a long, book-lined, comfortable room, where deep in arm chairs and discussion may be found every evening groups of doctors or teachers, or "people interested," while in a friendly atmosphere tea and ideas circulate amongst them. The Clinic is at present a power station where, through fellowship and discussion, these various groups (it is hoped later that these will be groups of jurists, industrialists and others) will spread, use and live the wisdom and understanding gained through their knowledge of psychology in general and Adlerism in particular.

Psychological Aid Clinic

While writing about psychological centres whose work is with adults and only through them to children, mention should be made of the Psychological Aid Society, a lay clinic. Miss Turner, of this Clinic, has her own extension of the Freudian view with a definitely philosophical and religious interpretation. Groups of doctors, teachers and others wishing to use their knowledge in their work are "pupils" with her and meet for lectures, discussion and personal help. For Miss Turner's interpretation of psychology see her books, "The Psychology of Self-Consciousness" and "The Dream, on the Anxiety-Hypothesis."

GENERAL

There is no "Jungian" clinic in London, but I gather that Dr Jung's interpretation of psychology is very widely held by practising psychologists and psychiatrists, all of whom may not be complete "Jungians," but have been deeply affected in their point of view by his writings.

Although the majority of North American psychologists are, I believe, Behaviourists, there is not one as far as we know amongst people at work in Universities, Training Colleges and Clinics in London, and psychologists of this way of thinking seem, in England, to be rare.

There are many other bodies working in London for the welfare of children in general, or for education, apart from all those mentioned, in which psychology is used as an essential part of the work, though there is nothing that would be considered psychological research in the laboratory sense.

The Educational Settlements, for example, exist avowedly to help men and women to know themselves and their world—realising that knowledge alone is not enough but understanding, culture, work, love and service round out their lives. An educational settlement is not so much a body co-operating with others concerned with adult education as a centre of co-operation created by them all. It is a "company of adult students" made up of groups of diverse

desires and purposes, who agree to make their home together in premises that contain not only classroom and library, lecture hall and if possible a little theatre, but also a common room where all can meet for friendly intercourse.

These and other bodies, perhaps interested in musical, artistic—in its narrower sense—or physical education, all realise the use that psychological study may be to them, and some know what their contribution might be to it. For example, one of the directors of the Children's Hour at the British Broadcasting Co had been, until his engagement there, a practising educationalist and child psychologist.

Day Nurseries do not yet provide for clinical work amongst their children and the attempts to provide definite psychological instruction for the Matrons and Head Teachers have not yet been fully worked out, but they hope that there will be advance in both these directions in the future.

General Survey

So many organisations, so much effort—group and individual—such variety of views as to what is the means and what is the end, such overlapping, and gaps; many theories, some hastily made, others insufficiently digested by those working them out, much careful, single-minded experiment (the single-mindedness very rarely degenerating to narrow-mindedness), patient research where a life-time may be happily used in a welter of calculations, figures and statistics; enthusiastic (and at times ill-directed) giving of time, money and work; a spirit moving, taking form and stretching its wings. What is this spirit? Nothing really new, though its vibrations are charged with the words "New Psychology," "New Education," "New Schools," "New Thought." It is just the age old attempt to reconcile the One and the Many. How can we, each one, develop a balanced personality in harmony with our environment? The development of the physical world has rushed round and over us—industrial, commercial, scientific discoveries have almost drowned us. This reconciliation seems more impossible than ever. But at this point first one then another of us realises that this reconciliation is the most important matter in life for us. We see that psychology and education have a fundamental and essential place in our lives and in the life of our country. Psychology may interpret our personality, education may develop it. The development of psychology and education is rushing forward to keep pace with the developments in industrialism and to save us from disaster. Education, real education, is recognised as necessary for us all throughout our lives, though the word is mangled and thrown about and used to cover all manner of individual crankiness, self-conceit or emptiness.

Psychology steps out from its academic fastness. It tells us that it is no longer a pastime for professors, but that it is here to try to guide us through all our stages from the pre-historic foetus to the moment when we face death, to bring health and happiness; to prevent illness and crime, to be the indispensable handmaid of all teachers, doctors, lawyers, statesmen, social workers, industrialists and others who, each from his own angle, have any relationship with the human factor.

Modern psychology has in the nick of time shown us that although it was born through the study of the abnormal it has infinite possibilities for the normal person, even though as yet the whole subject is so inadequately explored. It has shown us already that each one of us could be in some degree a psychologist—that this "discourse on the mind" might be the response to our need at the moment.

"I love people but I hate psychology!" or "I love psychology but I hate people!" should be shortly impossible to say. Psychology is you and me and that nice Mrs Snooks and that queer Miss Spifkins—or nothing.

At the moment it is true that most of us cannot see the wood for the trees. But that does not matter. The budding science of psychology demands that we study those trees even though we personally may never discover on which side of the wood we shall emerge in order to see it whole.

- Adler Society**, 55, Gower Street, London, W C 1.
- British Psychological Society**, 121a, Gloucester Road, London, S W 7
- Committee for Research in Education (of the British Psychological Society)**, Bedford College, Regent's Park, London, N W 1
- Central Association for Mental Welfare**, 24, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S W 1.
- Child Guidance Council**, 24, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S W 1.
- Educational Settlements Association**, 150, Southampton Row, London, W C 1
- Guy's Hospital Clinic**, St. Thomas's Street, London, S E. 1.
- Marylebone Dispensary**, Marylebone Lane, London, W 1
- Maudsley Clinic**, Denmark Hill, S.E. 5
- National Institute of Industrial Psychology**, 329, High Holborn, London, W C
- Pioneer Health Centre**, 142, Queen's Road, Peckham, London, S E
- Psychological Aid Society**, 14, Endsleigh Street, London, W C 1
- Tavistock Square Clinic**, 51, Tavistock Square, London, W C 1
- Dr. Godwin Baynes**, 20, Park Crescent, London, W 1, is Dr Jung's representative in London

PUBLICATIONS.

- British Journal of Psychology**, Cambridge University Press, Fetter Lane, London, E C 4. Published quarterly, 30/- per year or 10/6 per copy.
- Forum of Education**, Messrs Longmans Green, 39, Paternoster Row, London, E C. Published February, June and November, 2/- per copy.

Tests of Temperamental Qualities*

By D. W. Oates, M.A.

(Headmaster, Municipal Secondary School for Boys, Newport, Mon.)

The discrepancy observed between intelligence test scores and scholastic achievement suggests that there are important non-intelligence factors at present not easily identifiable or measurable, especially by group tests, and that these are in many cases the determining factors in success. Prognosis in schools cannot be adequate until we have discovered some means of evaluating these factors.

The investigations of temperamental qualities, of which this is a brief report, have been carried out mainly on the lines of the Downey tests. A number of reactions are tested on the assumption that individuals differ in the amount of nervous energy at their disposal, and in the relative ease or difficulty with which it discharges into motor areas. The dynamic traits brought under investigation are mainly those of speed, forcefulness, decisiveness, carefulness, and persistence. No details of the methods of investigation or of the conclusions arrived at can be given in a brief report. The results show that while such tests give an indication of the general nature of the reactions of an individual they cannot be claimed, without further investigation, to indicate the possession of definite psychological qualities such as may be suggested by the names of the dynamic traits. The correlation co-efficients furnish evidence that temperament, as measured by these tests, functions quite independently of intelligence, and that school achievement

is equally dependent upon both. Some of the tests appear to have distinct prognostic value; distinct success or failure in school work is indicated by marked variation in scores in the temperament tests. Successful students—that is, those who succeed academically even beyond the standard indicated by their intelligence scores, for example—possess the power of co-ordination of impulses and are facile in manipulating all the factors in a situation. Unsuccessful students, on the other hand, are unable to handle all the factors in a situation successfully without consistent practice and persistent effort, which call for qualities in which they are, according to these tests, deficient.

The question opens up a vast and difficult field which has been very little explored. When the qualities under investigation are so elusive, and results so difficult of interpretation, conclusions can only be regarded as purely tentative. Further investigation on the lines of some of the tests that appear promising, and more detailed scientific analysis of the dynamic qualities measured by the tests, will perhaps enable us to determine more definitely whether these are universal qualities of personality that function apart from the specific situation in the test. The establishment of reliable tests of the non-intelligence factors involved in scholastic achievement would be of immense practical value to education. Some of the tests give promise of usefulness and suggest that the objective measurement of non-intelligence traits may ultimately be made possible by the development and perfection of this type of test.

* For full report see "British Journal of Psychology" (April, 1928) and "Forum of Education."

Mental and Psychological Tests in Lowestoft

By W. T. Tregear, B.A. (late H.M.I.)

Systematic Psychological and Mental Testing commenced in Lowestoft in 1925 in connection with two Open-Air Class Rooms, primarily for delicate children. Medical examination of candidates was paralleled by application of Standardised Mental and Educational Tests to determine the degree of retardation, if any, existing in those chosen. As might be expected, a large proportion showed a serious degree. The tests have been continued periodically and the collation of the results, with the information given by the ordinary scholastic attainment tests, and with the knowledge arrived at by close study of the children by the teachers, has been of great service in estimating the value of the special methods employed for the training under open-air conditions of children much below normal in mental calibre or in attainment.

Moreover, the experience of the value of Mental Testing has led to its use with all new entrants

into the Girls' Schools of which the Open-Air Classes form a part—and in all cases of difficulty of diagnosis of ability. Its aid in proper classification is great, and the method has now spread to five other schools in the Borough.

A further step was taken in 1926-7 in the use of psychological tests in an enquiry carried out with regard to dull and backward children in the Borough. The detailed results of the enquiry are not yet made public, but among the tests used were Dr Cyril Burt's Northumberland Tests, Dr Ballard's Oral Tests, The Burt Reading, and the Stanford Revision of the Binet Simon Scale.

Investigations are being continued in certain directions, and the further use and development of psychological methods will doubtless attend the establishment of two more Open-Air Classes for Boys in the near future.

NOTES

SUMMER SCHOOLS.

St. Andrew's, Fife, Scotland

A Summer School for Teachers will be held in St. Andrew's from 9th to 27th July, 1928. One of the main features of the School will be a course on Modern Developments in Education, for which a number of leading authorities on the new movements are being engaged. Among those who have already consented to take part are Professor T. P. Nunn, London, and Dr. Karl Wilker, Germany. A set of courses for Infant Teachers, in which it is hoped that Dr. Decroly of Brussels will assist, is also being arranged and will include classes in Individual Work, Child Psychology, Music and Singing, Games, Infant Handwork, Aims, Organisation, etc., of Infant Departments. Courses will also be offered on Mental Tests, Folk Dancing, Methods of Teaching Reading, Music and Musical Appreciation, Rural Science and Educational Handwork.

Dr. Karl Wilker and Dr. O. Decroly are both prominent workers for the New Education Fellowship on the Continent and Prof. Nunn is a vice-president of the English Section of the Fellowship. We hope that St. Andrew's will see many of our members in July.

Full details from Prof. W. McClelland, Training Centre, Park Place, Dundee.

The Second Vienna Summer School

will be held at the University of Vienna, 16th July to 12th August. There will be Language Courses, Lecture Courses (conducted in English) and Excursions. The lectures give a wonderful insight into Austrian life and all that is being done in Austria for children. Among the titles are "Creative Child Art," "Modern Art in Austria," "The Austrian Theatre," "Child Welfare Work," "The New Education in Austria," and among the lecturers we find old friends, Dr. Paul Dengler, Prof. Cizek, Dr. Adler and Dr. Del Manzo, of Columbia University.

Further details from Dr. P. Dengler, The Austro-American Institute of Education, Elisabethstrasse 9, Vienna, 1.

A Conference on Bilingualism in its Relation to Education

will be arranged by the International Bureau of Education, Geneva. The conference will be a working one and the number of participants will be limited. The papers and tests used at the Conference will be published and can be had for 16s. (\$4). Details of Conference from the International Bureau of Education, 4, rue Charles Bonnet, Geneva, or from Professor J. Hughes, University College, Aberystwyth, Wales.

The World Youth Peace Congress

will be held in Holland from the 17th to 26th August. Outlines of Study have been prepared to enable participants in the Congress, and others, to obtain a deeper insight into the problems of World Peace. Further details from The British Federation of Youth, 421, Sentinel House, Southampton Row, London, W.C.1.

An Easter Vacation Course

on "Pedagogy and Psychology of Modern Language Learning" will be conducted by Hon. Prof. J. J. Findlay and Mr. H. E. Walsh, B.A., at the Abbots-holme School, Rocester, Derbyshire, from 9th to 20th April. Fee (including board and residence) £6 6s 0d. Particulars from the Director of Extra-Mural Studies, The University, Manchester.

Chile

M. Armand Hamel, editor of our affiliated magazine in Chile, *La Nueva Era*, recently lectured on the New Education at the University of La Paz, Bolivia, the meeting being presided over by His Excellency the President of the Republic.

The Government of Chile has undertaken a complete reform of education, and in its plans has adopted many principles of the New Education.

Educational Tours to France

The Wayfarers' Travel Agency, 83, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1, specialises in arranging Educational Tours for girls and boys.

Paris is the principal centre, but Rouen is also used to some extent. In Paris excellent student hostels are used to accommodate the parties. No set programme is arranged, but individual programmes of sightseeing are drawn up to suit the requirements of each school. Each party has its own French guide all day, and she is responsible, not only for giving an account of the places visited, but also for all matters of transport, entrances and tips.

Some parties prefer Rouen or other centres, and the Wayfarers have arranged many parties using Rouen as a centre. A stay in Rouen is well worth while from an educational point of view.

Educational Institute of Scotland—Work of Research Committee

During the past two or three years the Research Committee of the Institute has been engaged in various investigations (see *The Scottish Educational Journal* of 28th December, 1923) —

(1) A comprehensive enquiry into Examinations and Tests, chiefly with the object of raising the reliability in ordinary examinations, but including some consideration of the use of Intelligence Tests in ordinary school work (see *Journal* of 11th Jan., 1st Feb., and 18th April, 1924).

(2) Speeding up of Handwriting in preparation for the Post-Qualifying Stage (*Journal* of 7th March, 1924).

(3) The best method of using the Standard Spelling List.

(4) Methods of Teaching Spelling (*Journal* of 9th Oct., 20th Nov., 1925, 15th Jan., 26th Feb., 30th April, 12th Nov. and 19th Nov., 1926).

(5) Promotions from Primary to Post-Primary Courses (*Journal* of 19th Dec., 1924, 18th Feb., 27th March, 15th May and 26th June, 1925).

(6) Enquiry into the practicability of an Intelligence Test at the Leaving Certificate Stage, over forty Secondary Schools have given assistance and material of great interest has been collected (*Journal* of 28th May, 1926, and 4th Feb., 1927).

(7) During the past two years Essay Competitions have been conducted both for Students in training (on Special Aspects of School Work) and for Teachers and others. Last year, as a result of the Teachers' Competition, some very valuable research was done into the history of Education in several Scottish parishes. This year the Teachers' Competition has provided many interesting contributions on the subject of "Economy of Time in School Work" (*Journal* of May 21st, June 4th, Dec. 81st, 1926, Jan 21st, Nov. 11th, 1927).

The special copies of the *Journal* mentioned above may be borrowed from the New Education Fellowship's Library.

Exchange of Teachers between Britain and U.S.A.

A Joint Committee of representatives of the Association of Head Mistresses, the British Federation of University Women, and the English-Speaking Union has undertaken the arrangement of the exchange of Secondary School Teachers between England and America. The appointments are open to teachers holding a position in a school in Gt Britain, and the condition laid down is that the teachers will return to their original posts on the completion of their year's work in the United States. Subjects include English, History, Classics, Mathematics and Science, and where adjustments in salary are necessary these are made through the respective Committees in both countries. Scholarships are offered annually to assist British teachers who wish to visit U.S.A. All information may be had from the Hon Secretary, Joint Committee for the Interchange of Secondary Teachers, c/o The English-Speaking Union, Dartmouth House, 37, Charles Street, Berkeley Square, London, W 1.

Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York

In September last Dr Jesse L Newlon, formerly Superintendent of Schools, Denver, became Director of the Lincoln School, thus setting free Dr Otis Caldwell in order that he may become director of the new Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, the establishment of which has been made possible by the generous financial support of the Lincoln School parents. The Institute building will probably be completed during this year.

New Zealand

An interesting account has reached us of work done in the Friends' School, Wanganui, of which the Headmaster is Mr Frank E Moreton.

The International Federation of Home and School

This Federation was formed in August, 1927, at Toronto, Canada, a parent-teacher movement that had as its base the American National Congress of Parents and Teachers, when seventy-five representatives from many lands discussed the possibility of linking up then various national organisations. The Federation was formed with a fully organised board representing twelve nations, to which two more have since been added. The object of the Federation is to bring together for conference and co operation all agencies concerning themselves with the care and training of children in home, school and community, and with the education of adults, to meet these responsibilities. It is a Federation of all forces that function in the care of the young, where the whole child will be considered in all his relationships, against the background of his parents and the environment of his school and his community. Mrs

Beatrice Ensor, Editor of *The New Era*, represents England on the Board of Directors.

Modern Ideals in Education to be Spread by Modern Means

An important development took place at the World Conference at Locarno, August, 1927, in the founding of The International New Education Film Association, which has recently been registered at the Bureau of Commerce at Geneva as an international organisation.

The main object of the Association is to procure first-class films dealing with New Education. The chief aim is that of filming and making slides of New Schools and progressive classes in State Schools in different countries, together with psychological films dealing with the child, for use in Universities, Teacher Training Colleges, and for teachers.

The Executive Committee consists of its Chairman, Mrs Marion Beaufait James, Dr Decroly, Dr. Férière, Dr Peter Petersen and Miss Grace Crutwell. Representatives from twenty one different countries have been appointed to organize and carry on the work in their respective countries.

The Association has been recently affiliated to the Commission Internationale du Cinématographe de l'Enseignement et de l'Éducation Sociale at Paris.

The Headquarters of the Association are at the London office of The New Education Fellowship, 11, Tavistock Square, W C 1.

The Children's Players

The Children's Players is a play-producing society recently formed for the purpose of presenting plays to children in the elementary schools of London. The Society has been born of a belief in the drama as an educational force and seeks to encourage an appreciation of the drama among children who have neither the opportunities nor the means to take advantage of such facilities as now exist.

All the Players have had experience in dramatic work, but only one is connected professionally with the stage. The Players will produce and perform all the plays themselves, and their service will be voluntary.

The company will travel from one district to another to give performances to children who have no conception of dramatic art beyond the cinema. Several performances have already been given. Further information may be obtained from Mr W. Johnston, 35, Empress Avenue, Woodford Green, Essex.

BOOK REVIEWS

Owing to lack of space we have had to omit book reviews from this issue. Readers should note the following new books to hand, which will be reviewed later —

Curriculum Making in the Elementary School. By the Staff of the Elementary Division of the Lincoln School, New York.

Talks to Parents and Teachers. By HOMER LANE Allen and Unwin, 5/-

Practical Psychology for Students of Education. By CHARLES FOX Kegan Paul, 7/6

Creative Music in the Home. By SATIS N COLEMAN Myers, 250, Park Ave., New York

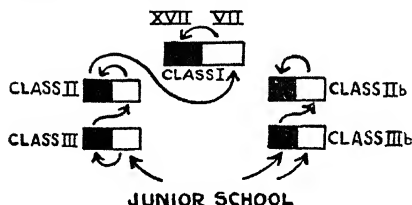
The Liberation of Mankind By H W VAN LOON, America

(Continued from page 84)

The marking of the individual work is necessarily heavy, but there are special arrangements to lessen this. Only one of the four subjects is fully marked each week, but no group knows which will be called to send in its work in any one of the subjects.

St. George's Row (L.C.C.) School, Ebury Bridge, London, S.W.

This school has an interesting system of grading. The boys are grouped into four "houses," named after the public schools. The boys sit in "houses" in their classes, and have weekly competitions both in work and games. The prefects are nominated by the Headmaster and elected by the boys. There are five classes in the school, of which the highest is Class I, approximating to Standards VII and Ex-VII.



The classes are divided into (a) Normal side—Classes I, II and III represent the boys of average ability; (b) Slower side—Classes IIb and IIIb represent retarded boys. Class IIIb contains boys whose attainments approximate to Standards III and IV, or boys who would benefit from a more practical course of instruction.

A class contains an upper and lower section, and each boy normally spends six months in each. If he shows unusual aptitude or is particularly backward in a subject he may take this particular subject in a higher or lower division. Promotions take place at the end of a six months' course and may be from one class to another or from the lower to the upper section of a class. Among other advantages this system of grading provides more opportunity for the backward boys, for example, Class IIIb always has a larger proportion of handicrafts, etc., than the other classes. It is possible, though rare, for a boy to pass from upper Class IIb to Class I.

For two hours a week all the boys work on a course of study chosen by themselves, and their choice is not limited to school subjects. The idea is to encourage the boys to begin study that will be useful and interesting to them when school days are over. Among the subjects chosen for study have been locomotives, birds, music, geology, carpentry and home-mending.

ESPERANTO LESSON II

(These lessons are being especially prepared so that our members may be able to follow the Esperanto translations of lectures at our future conferences)

Beginning this second Esperanto lesson, we have to apologise. In copying the first lesson for print, one line has been left out so that an important explanation has been passed over. You will have noticed that some words end in "j." For instance "*kiam oni instruas esperanton al infanoj*." In reading that the pronoun "ili," which followed, means "they," you have certainly found out by yourselves that this unexplained "j" marks the plural of the noun. We beg pardon for this omission, and hope that it has not given you the impression that there are mysterious and unexplainable things in Esperanto.

The PLURAL is marked by adding, as well to the substantive as to the accompanying adjective, the letter *j*. *Ekzemple unu homo*, one person, one man, *kvar belaj homoj*, four beautiful people; *ĉiuj homoj*, all men.

Verbs The past ends in "is": *li pensis tiel*, he thought so.

The imperative ends in "u": *ĉiuj atendu*; *nenu komencu legi hodiaŭ*, everyone must wait, nobody must begin to read to-day.

The conditional ends in "us": *via amiko estus plej feliĉa, se li loĝus en tia bela hejmo*; your friend would be most happy, if he stayed in such a beautiful home.

Kiam oni esprimas deziron, ordonon, peton, oni uzas la imperativan formon de la verbo Ni deziras, ke ĉiuj homoj baldaŭ sciu esperanton.

Prefikso: "mal" signifas la kontraŭon - *facila* easy, *malfacila*, difficult; *rapide*, quickly, *malrapide*, slowly, *utila*, useful, *malutila*, harmful.

Sufiksoj: "ebi" signifas: *kui povas esti* *Ekzemple: movebla (kui povas movi); Esperanto estas instruebla—signifas ke oni povas instrui Esperanton*.

"lo" signifas instrumenton, objekton *kui helpas por fari ion - preni*, to take, *prenilo*, nippers; *teni*, to hold, *tenilo*, handle; *laŭtparolilo (laŭte, loudly, paroli, to speak), loud speaker*.

"igi" means to cause someone or something to be or to do. *Ekzemple - klara*, clear, *klarigi*, to make clear, to explain, *kun*, with, *kunigi*, to connect; *verda*, green, *verdigi*, to make green.

Each suffix or prefix can be used as a word on its own, if you add to it one of the letters, o, a, e, i, etc., thus making a substantive, adjective, adverb, verb, and so on - *eblo*, possibility, *ebla*, possible, *eble*, perhaps. *Por fari tiun laboron, oni bezonas multajn ilojn*, to do this work, one needs many tools.

Si=himself, herself, itself, themselves

Sia=his own, her—its—their own.

Si (*sin, sia*) refers to the subject of the sentence in which it occurs. It can never be part of the subject. *Ekzemple ĉiu infano ludas per sia ludilo*, each child plays with its own toy. *La lernanto legas sian leteron*, the pupil reads his own letter, but: *la lernanto legas lian leteron*, the pupil reads his letter (the letter of another person).

Vortifarado (word-building). *Ekzemplo senarmigo* (*sen-arm-ig-o*=without-arm-make, means disarming) cause to be

Tiu dua leciono estas la sekvo de la unua. Do ni ne ripetos vortojn kaj klarigojn kiujn oni jam legis antaŭ tri monatoj. Se vi bezitas, prenu la januaran numeron kaj serĉu tie kion vi ne rememoras.

Post lego de nia esperanta paĝo en la januara numero de nia revuo, eble multaj personoj opinias, ke, se esperanto estas tiel facile lernebla, oni ne bezonas oferi multan tempon por ĝin lerni, ke sufiĉas, se oni rapide ĝin lernu antaŭ internacia konferenco, kongreso aŭ vojaĝo. Kial instrui jam al malgrandaj infanoj tian lingvon? Estas utile insisti pri tio. Ĉar esperanto estas tre facila, oni ofte kinas diri mi rapide ĝin lernos, kiam ĉiuj homoj ĝin scios, sed, se ĉiu pensas tiel, neniu ĝin lernos. Tion faras la ŝtatoj nun, pri la senarmigo. Ili ĉiuj atendas, ke la aliaj senarmigu, kaj tiel ĉiu konservas sian armeon. Kiam oni komencis instali telefonon, tiam ankaŭ multaj homoj diris: "Ĉerte telefono estas tre utila objekto, plej interesa invento! Kiam miaj amikoj havos ĝin, mi ankaŭ 'tuj' ĝin instaligos en mia loĝejo." Kaj tiuj personoj atendis—atendis por "tuj" instali, kaj la amikoj same atendis! Feliĉe ekzistis pli inteligentaj homoj, kiuj ne atendis ĝis aliaj instali, sed mem tuj instalis. Nur por tiuj kleraj, saĝaj homoj, telefono tiel rapide estis helpa ilo en la ĉiutaga vivo. Same, pro inteligentaj homoj, kiuj ne prokrastas lernadon ĝis "aliaj" lernos, sed kiuj fakte volas tuj uzi tian komprenilon, esperanto estas jam utila ilo por internaciaj rilatoj. Kaj, por ke ĝi estu ĉiam pli kaj pli utila al ĉiuj, necese estas, ke oni instruu ĝin jam al infanoj.

fari to do, to make
oferi to devote, to sacrifice
antaŭ before
klina to feel inclined to
aŭ or
kial why
utila useful
tio that thing
ŝtato state
nun now
tiam then, at that time
ankaŭ also, too

tuj immediately, directly
pli ol more than
ĝis until, till
mem self
pro on account of
klara with insight
tago day
vivo life
prokrasti to put off
voli to will
kompreni to understand
povi to be able

PARTICIPOJ ANT, denotes the present time, *mi estas tradukanta leteron*, I am translating a letter. *La lernanto*, the one who is learning. *ĜUSTE muzikon* enjoying music

INT, denotes the past time *pasintan jaron mi lernus esperanton*, last year (in the year now past) I learned Esperanto

ONT, denotes the future. *Venontan semajnon ni aŭdos paroladon pri paco*, in the coming week we shall hear a speech on peace

Cu esprimas demandon. Cu vi povas paroli francan lingvon? Can you speak French? *Cu plaĉis al vi la ĝaja respondo de la knabo?* Did the cheerful answer of the boy please you?

SURRASOS "ad," denotes the continuance or continued repetition of an action. *Ekzemple okupo*, occupation, *okupado*, continued occupation. *Post pena marŝado, ni subite atingis la bordon de la maro*, after troublesome continued walking, we suddenly reached the sea-shore.

"ul"=*homo kiu havas specialan kvaliton: fremda, foreign, fremdulo, foreigner, sperto, experience, spertulo*, man of experience. *samaĝulo* (*sam-aĝ-ul-o*) person of the same age

"aĝ"=*objekto, afero*. *La radiko montras ĝian specialan sencan desegni*, to draw, *desegnaĵo*, a drawing, *proksima*, near, *proksimaĵo*, proximity, *nova*, new, *novaĵo*, news.

"em"=*tiu kinas fari ion legi*, to read, *legema*, fond of reading; *senti*, to feel, *sentema*, sensible, *plori*, to cry, *plorema*, inclined to cry

Ne nur lernado de esperanto plaĉas al infanoj, sed granda ĝojo estas por ili, kapabli korespondi kun samaĝuloj alilandaj. Ekzistas jam vastaj organizaĵoj pri internacia kaj interlerneja korespondado. En la Konferenco en Praha "Paco per lernejo," oni aŭdis tre interesajn raportojn pri tia korespondado. Oni povis rimarki, el la raporto de la Ligo de Ruĝaj Crucoj en Parizo, kiel tempokosta estas organizi tian korespondadon, kiam la infanoj ne komprenas la saman lingvon. En la oficejo de la Ruĝa Cruco oni tradukas la leterojn de la skribintoj por igi ilin kompreneblaj al la ricevantoj. Por la infanoj, tio forprenas ion de la ĉarmo, kiun ili povus ĝui, se ili kapablus legi la leterojn mem de la korespondanto. El tiu malbona stato helpas esperanto! Tion rakontis Sinjoro Hahn, el Dresden, kiu jam dum dek-ok jaroj gvidis esperantan korespondadon de infanoj. Kia ĝojo por la lernantoj, kiam ili ricevas leterojn en lingvo kiun ili komprenas, kiam ili mem povas skribi al samaĝuloj tre malproksimaj, ne bezonante tradukon de instruisto aŭ alia personeo. Kun granda plezuro ili interŝanĝas leterojn, poŝmarkojn, poŝmarkojn, desegnaĵojn,—rakontas unu al la alia tion, kion ili interesas kaj okupas. Tiamaniere la infanoj povas partopreni la vivon de aliajloj kaj lernas jam tre kompreni aliajn morojn ol la proprajn. Tiu korespondado ofte interesas la tutan familion, kaj helpas krei kompreneman spiriton en homoj diversaj laŭ nacio, lingvo, raso. Ni ne povas rezisti, mencii tiu poeziaĵon, kiu deklaras knabo verkis kaj sendis al alilandaj korespondanto

Por ke hejmlandoj vi komprenu,
Al fremdaj landoj vi alvenu
Verdaĵo sama kovras tie
Germanan, Francan teron tie,

THE NEW ERA

Kaj ondoj de la samaj maroj
La bordojn kisas de miljaroj
Ĉu nur la homoj malpacemaj
Ne povas esti kunsentemaj?
Ho, baldaŭ venku la kompreno
Ke paco estas vera beno!

per through, by means of
el out of, from among
ruĝa red
kruco cross
for away from
iom some (of the quantity)
rakonti to relate
aŝk ok eighteen
ok-dek eighty
frue early
moro habits, custom

tuta whole
laŭ according to
dek-du twelve
du-dek twenty
montri to show
verŝi to compose
tero earth
ondo wave
mil thousand
venki to conquer, to overcome
beni to bless

patro, father, *gepatroj*, father and mother, *gepatra lingvo*, mother-tongue (language of both parents), *lingvo de patrino*, language of the mother

Ni poste montrons, ke studado de esperanto estas bona helpilo por koni sian gepatran lingvon. En diversaj lernejoj oni faris similan sperton rilate al studo de fremdaj lingvoj. Anglaj instruistoj rimarkis, kiel malfacile la anglaj infanoj komprenas fremdan gramatikon. La kaŭzo estas, ke angla gramatiko estas tiel simpla, ke Angloj ne multe atentigas ĝin, ili kapablas tie bone paroli angle, eĉ ne konante la gramatikon. En aliaj lingvoj, kiuj havas komplikajn gramatikojn, la afero ne estas tiel simpla, speciale por fremduoj. En angla lernejo, rimarkinte kiel malfacile la infanoj lernas la francan lingvon, oni faris sekvan provon. En du paralelaj klasoj, oni instruis dum unu jaro en unu klaso la francan, en la alia klaso la esperantan lingvon. Dum la sekvanta jaro, oni instruis en la du klasoj la francan. Post fino de tiu dua jaro, o miru! la lernantoj, kiuj lernis la francan nur dum unu jaro, sed studis esperanton antaŭe estis multe pli bone sukcesintaj en studo de franca lingvo, ol tiuj, kiuj lernis la francan dum du jaroj! Tiu, ŝajne, malreka vojo kondukis pli rapide al la celo ol la alia. Esperanto, gradigante la malfacilaĵojn, helpis al la anglaj infanoj kompreni la komplikajn de franca lingvo. Tiu sperto estas tiom interesa, ke oni nur povas konsili ripetigi ĝin en aliaj lernejoj, kaj kompari la rezultojn. —Certe estas, ke oni pli rapide lernas esperanton se oni scias la latinan lingvon. Sed ankaŭ vere estas, ke oni multe pli rapide lernas la latinan, se oni scias esperanton. Kaj, ĉar esperanto estas la plej facila el ĉiuj lingvoj, ŝajnas logike kaj oportune, lerni unue ĝin, kiel helpilon al studo de ĉiuj aliaj.

koni to know
sekti to follow
provi to try
fino end
miru wonder

ŝajni to appear, to seem
rekta straight
vojo way
tiom so much, that quantity
vorto word

Sufiksaj "ig" = to become so or such oneself *proksima*, near, *proksimiĝi*, to become nearer to; *interesiĝi*, to become interested

"et" = malgranda *ĉambro*, room, *ĉambreto*, little room, *knabineto* (*knab-in-et-o*) little girl

VORTPARADO NUR EL AFIKSOJ *et-ul-in-o*, little girl, *et-ig-i*, make possible, *et-ig-i*, to become smaller

Ofte oni klinas pensi, ke lernado de alia lingvo malhelpas bonan konon de gepatra lingvo. Instruistoj, kiuj dum jaroj instruis esperanton, atentigis nin pri kontraŭa fakto. Ili spertis, ke studo de esperanto helpas al la infanoj pli bone koni sian gepatran lingvon. Unue, precize ĉar esperanto estas facila kaj permesas senpene rimarki la elementojn, la konstruon, la uzadon de la lingvo, la lernantoj pli interesiĝas pri lingva studo en esperanto ol en aliaj lingvoj. Sed, kiam ili akiris lingvan intereson, studinte esperanton, ili poste ankaŭ havas intereson por studi pli funde sian propran lingvon. Tiu dua studo estas al ili pli facila; ili komparas, serĉas analogojn, malsamaĵojn, klasas vortojn, analizas frazojn, kaj tiel pli enprofundiĝas en la kono de gepatra lingvo.

Vin, kiuj interesiĝas pri infana vivo, ni atentigas pri novaj ĝojoj de la nuntempaj infanoj. Finante nian hodiaŭan lecionon, ni montrons malagrablaĵojn kiun la novaj tempoj povas okazigi al infanoj. Sur publika placo, meze de granda homamaso, knabineto ploras. Policisto alproksimiĝas kaj metante sian manon sur la infana kapo, patre demandas: "Kial do vi ploras, etulino?" — "Mi perdis mian patrinojn; mi marŝis apud ŝi, estis multaj, multaj homoj, — subite mi ne plu vidis ŝin!" — "Ne ploru, knabineto," bone kore diras la poliestro, "ni trovos vian patrinojn. Sed, alian fojon, tenu vian patrinojn per ŝia jupo, por ne perdi ŝin!" — "Mi jam klopodis," respondas per malgaja voĉo la infaneto, "sed mi estas tro malgranda, — mi ne povas atingi tiom alte!"

funde thoroughly
mezo middle
amaso crowd
kapo head
perdi to lose
apud by the side
vidi to see

koro heart
trovi to find
fojo time
jupo skirt
klopodi to attempt
voĉo voice
alta high

THE NEW ERA

(The English Organ of the New Education Fellowship)

Editor MRS BEATRICE ENSOR.

Assistant Editor MISS CLARE SOPER.

Vol 9

JULY, 1928

No 35

EDITIONS:

ENGLISH (Quarterly)	THE NEW ERA	<i>Subscriptions per ann. post free 4s 6d. (\$1 15)</i>
	Mrs Beatrice Ensor, 11, Tavistock Sq., London	
FRENCH (Monthly)	POUR L'ERE NOUVELLE	<i>8 Fr (Swiss), 6/8, \$1.60</i>
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(Note—The Editor is not responsible for views expressed in the magazine other than those in the Editorial. The above editions are not translations of each other, each Editor being free to fill the special needs of his own readers.)

Subscription to *The New Era* is 4/6 (\$1.15) per annum

(Foreign cheques accepted, but 10 cts should be added to cheques drawn on distant banks)

Published: JANUARY, APRIL, JULY, OCTOBER

THE NEW ERA, 11, TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1, ENGLAND.

AGENTS—London: W. H. Smith & Son.

U.S.A.: Bookshop for Boys and Girls, 270, Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.
Brentano's, 1, W 47th Street, New York City

S. Africa: Juta & Co., Ltd., Booksellers, P.O Box 30, Capetown (also Johannesburg)

Canada: Gordon & Gotch, 81, Queen Street W, Toronto

T. Eaton & Co., Toronto

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SIR MICHAEL SADLER
(President, English Section, New Education Fellowship)

THE OUTLOOK TOWER

AFTER three months' exploration in the States, and while not attempting to make any detailed comparison of English and American education, I feel the need of a closer understanding of what is best in each country.

We, with our ancient traditions, our inherited culture, our stability and higher academic standing, have much to give. But there have been no spectacular changes in our English education, and the student apparently finds less to study in England than in some other countries. Yet the fact that there has been no social upheaval as a result of the war is due in large measure to our pre-war education, and this alone should offer interesting material for educational research.

Our very strength, however, may become our weakness if, satisfied with what we have, we are not sufficiently aware that education must progress and keep pace with a changing world. From a mass of impressions gathered during my tour I have selected those which seem to me to be most significant.

Practically all my remarks on American education have reference to the schools in which some new work is being tried. Naturally, as in all countries, there are in America's education extremes of good and bad and many varying shades between. The term "progressive school" is very misleading, as it has come to be applied to a certain type of private school following a definite programme. There are, however, many other types of school experimenting in different ways, and the word "progressive" cannot be limited to any special group.

The Boston Meeting of the Department of Superintendence

Imagine a conference of 15,000 people at which all the educational associations

of England were represented, including all grades of the teaching profession, from directors of education, public school principals and leading psychologists, to the young novice in the nursery school; professors of Universities hob-nobbing with elementary school teachers, directors of county systems not too busy to chat with the kindergartner, no social barriers between the various grades of teachers—all one band of colleagues controlling education over a distance equal to that from London to Bagdad—then you have the background of the Boston conference.

Parents were present too, seeking to contact the newest phases of education. Everywhere there was an atmosphere of open-mindedness, of eager searching, of realisation that the philosophy and technique of education are in the melting-pot. There was an *embarras de richesses* as regards programme. Certain sessions were planned for the whole assembly, calling out an audience of 10,000; at other times a choice was offered of from ten to twenty meetings. Between the gatherings there were endless breakfasts, lunches, dinners, at which personal contacts were enriched.

The presence of Mrs. Lindbergh and her son at the Conference symbolised for some of us the new youth eagerly adding its quota to man's mastery of the world around him.

One feature that impressed itself upon a European familiar with the water-tight professionalism and class-feeling in Europe was the interest that one grade of teacher showed in the work of another grade. The high school teacher, for instance, realised that the nursery school problems affected her problems; there is an increasing tendency to view the child as a unit of growth from which one stage cannot be studied apart from all the others.

Nature v. Nurture

One of the most interesting meetings was that held by the National Society for the Study of Education and based on its report for the year 1928.* This Society undertakes a special piece of research each year, the results of which are published in its year-book. In the year-book for 1928 the Thorndike-Terman-Whipple group of psychology maintain that the Intelligence Quotient with which a child is born can be altered very little by environment, therefore heredity is all-important. The opposing school, led by Prof. F. N. Freeman, and supported by Prof. C. H. Judd, of Chicago, and Prof. W. C. Bagley, of Teachers' College, as a result of its research, maintain that environment is the more important factor and that the original I.Q. can be considerably raised through environment. But the fact that even the diehards of the "hereditarians" are forced to admit that the I.Q. can be slightly raised is of stupendous importance, for it is just by these few extra degrees that the mediocre may become the gifted. Home environment is found to contribute about 17 per cent. of the variance in I.Q.; parental influence alone accounts for about 33 per cent. The total contribution of heredity, i.e., of innate and heritable factors, is not far from 75 to 80 per cent. The maximal contribution of the best home environment to intelligence is apparently about 20 I.Q. points, or less, and almost surely lies between 10 to 30 points. The following is an indication of some of the studies of the Chicago groups:

A group of children were tested before placement and then retested after several years of residence in a foster home. A comparison of their ratings on the two tests gave evidence of a significant improvement in intelligence (as measured by intelligence test scores). A study of certain sub-groups showed that the children in the better foster homes gained considerably more than did those in the poorer homes. Furthermore, the children who were tested and adopted at an early age gained more than those adopted at a later age

What type of school is best able to improve the I.Q. is still to be demonstrated.

Progressive Education Conference

From Boston I went to New York to attend the annual conference of the Progressive Education Association, a national organisation for new education akin to the New Education Fellowship. This conference was extremely well organised. Many of the features of the Boston conference were reflected here; members came from all over the States and all seemed in close touch with each other's work.

It was interesting to note that principals of colleges find it worth while to consult these leaders of progressive schools over changes needed in the college entrance requirements, in order to bring them more into line with progressive schools. For example, at Vassar, a well-known women's college, there was held recently a special week-end conference dealing with the question of entrance examinations. Considerable modifications have resulted from this conference. Again, for the same purpose, a conference is being planned between heads of progressive schools and the presidents of some of the big men's colleges.

The outstanding speaker of the whole conference was Dr. John Dewey, whose philosophy of education is perhaps the most important contribution to education of this Age, and whose ideas, especially as interpreted by Professor W. Heard Kilpatrick, of Teachers' College, have profoundly affected the educational thought of America.

The paper read by Dr. Dewey is considered one of the most important pronouncements that he has given for many years†.

Dr. Dewey opened his address by asking the crucial question: "Can we be content if, from the various progressive schools,

* National Society for the Study of Education Secretary, Mr. G. M. Whipple, Danvers, Mass., U.S.A. Subscription, \$1.50 per annum.

† *Progressive Education and the Science of Education*, by John Dewey. Pamphlet, 50 cents, from Progressive Education Association, 10, Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

there emanate suggestions which radiate to other schools to enliven and vitalize their work; or should we demand that out of the co-operative undertakings of the various schools a coherent body of educational principles shall gradually emerge as a distinctive contribution to the theory of education?" In his opinion the distinctive contribution of progressive schools to education was so far "respect of individual capacities, interests and experience; enough external freedom and informality at least to enable teachers to become acquainted with children as they really are; respect for self-initiated and self-conducted learning; respect for activity as the stimulus and centre of learning; and, perhaps above all, belief in social contact, communication and co-operation upon a normal human plane, as all-enveloping medium." But "what is the distinctive relation of progressive education to the science of education, understanding by science a body of verified facts and tested principles which may give intellectual guidance to the practical operating of schools?"

Referring to intelligence testing, Dr. Dewey made the trenchant and all-too-often forgotten point: "If it be true that everything which exists could be measured—if only we knew how—that which does *not* exist cannot be measured. And it is no paradox to say that the teacher is deeply concerned with what does not exist. For a progressive school is primarily concerned with growth, with a moving and changing process, with *transforming* existing capacities and experiences; what already exists by way of native endowment and past achievement is subordinate to what it may become." The need for a new educational science is indicated if "one conceives that a social order different in quality and direction from the present is desirable, and that schools should strive to educate, with social change in view, by producing individuals not complacent about what already exists, and equipped with desires and abilities to assist in transforming it." Dr. Dewey pointed out that all new and

reforming movements pass through a stage of protest, of deviation and of innovation, but he wondered if this stage had not passed in the progressive education movement, and whether the time had not come for more constructively organized function in the new schools, for if they do not "*intellectually* organize their own work . . . they will contribute only incidental scraps to the science of education."

Dr. Adolph Meyer (John Hopkins University, Baltimore) lectured on *Freedom and Discipline*. Dr. Meyer has found that the young people of to-day are not satisfied with words, and that youth expects a man to live as he talks, that it is example, not talk, that is the real influence in education. Punishment, he declared, was an anachronism, a residual characteristic of the mediæval-minded. Discipline was the complement of freedom; in the new schools "discipline of participation" in a common life was taking the place of the old forms.

Professor Patty Smith Hill (Teachers' College, N.Y.) spoke on *The Home and the School as Centres of Child Life*. The home was a centre of learning; a concrete situation of life compared with which the school was an artificial by-product. The home was the fundamental unit of society. The parent had more permanency than the teacher in the child's life. Informal learning in the home was more effective than artificial teaching in schools. Schools as a rule were highly organized, there was no time for reflection, for meditation, no "waste of time" was allowed. Yet what exactly was "waste of time"? The home should provide a sense of security, a haven, a city of refuge. In the home the child should find wisdom which is more than knowledge yet includes it.

One morning round-table conferences were held. One of the most interesting was that chaired by Mr. Burton P. Fowler on *Progressive Principles and Methods in the Secondary School*. Sometimes the great changes that have taken place in the education of the young child

during the last ten years, and the relative imperviousness to change of the higher grades of education, led one to ask rather searchingly: "Is progressive education only for little children?" Mr. Fowler asserted that there was no such thing as a progressive secondary school in the whole of the U.S.A., but only certain units of progressive work here and there. The fact that these units existed, however, was a great hope for the future. The principles of progressive education, as presented by John Dewey, revealed clearly that, being based upon the principles of growth, they were applicable to every stage of a child's life. At present, however, there were obstacles such as obsolete forms of examinations, traditional curricula, etc., preventing the application of those principles to secondary education as a whole. Another hindrance was the persistence of the idea that certain subjects should enter the curriculum as a form of mental drill. But increasingly, in new forms of education, interest was being substituted for drill, bringing with it the real discipline of the learner, the discipline that comes from within. The "recitation" method of learning, the teacher-dominated class, must give place to "life situations" in the classroom with clearly defined objectives. Skills and information had been over-emphasized at the cost of attitudes. Again, in the secondary schools, there was the deadly preparatory function; they were always preparing for something just ahead.

Art as Work Unit

During the Conference there was an exhibition of work from schools all over the States; it was limited to units of work showing the correlation of art and handwork with academic subjects such as history, geography and mathematics. More and more art is ceasing to be an isolated subject providing scope for self-expression, and is becoming a definite part of studies formerly treated from the mental standpoint only.

Teachers' College

As on my former visit to the States in 1926, I was again very much impressed by the importance of Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, and by its far-reaching influence on the education of the whole Continent. Not only has Teachers' College brought together a remarkable group of research workers, but, through its supplementary and summer courses, teachers are kept abreast of the changes in educational thought, and the results of research and laboratory work are brought within the reach of teachers in a form suited to their needs. The international work of Teachers' College is also unique. A staff of capable men explore the world and keep their fingers upon the pulse of its educational systems. It is somewhat humorous, but nevertheless true, that if one wants information about education in Europe it is quicker to go to New York than to the country itself, for at Teachers' College the information will be found synthesised and in assimilable form. The international scholarships offered, by which students from other countries are able to spend a year in the States studying education, are becoming more and more valuable. At the international house one sees a strange mixture of races; students from all the ends of the earth drawn together to study mutual problems.

Another international feature is an arrangement by which groups of teachers from other countries visit the States for two months. While I was in New York a group of 25 German teachers and professors were undertaking such a tour. Teachers' College would be willing to arrange a tour for English teachers were sufficient interest shown.

Why not a British Teachers' College?

Such a centre of research and internationalism is sadly lacking in England. We have no body of people who, as an organised band, are keeping abreast of all that concerns education; we have no organisation that again and again draws the progressive teachers together. We

need a centre at which educators of all grades, philosophers, psychologists and parents can meet together, see their work as a unified whole, exchange their experiences, thrash out their differences, and present a common and organised front against all that seeks to thwart education in its gropings towards a new art and a new science.

We need a research laboratory from which scientific enquiries are carried out in the many branches of education and from which unbiased scientific findings are published. For example, in the matter of teaching a young child to read there are important findings unknown to hundreds of infant school teachers. Little has been done to test intelligence in our secondary schools, or to correlate achievement tests with examination results, and we have not as yet even standardised achievement tests for secondary schools. Again, there is but little available data as regards the academic results of the new type of education. England, especially, as the centre of an Empire, has a duty towards those who look to her for a lead. She should be able to send out to the Colonies knowledge of all that is going on in education throughout the world.

The Merrill-Palmer School

At the Merrill-Palmer Nursery School, Detroit, an exceptional piece of work has been made possible by a large fund left for research which should be of benefit to small children and to mothers. In connection with the nursery school itself there is a "physical growth" laboratory which is enquiring into the relationship of physical growth to general development. Interesting relationships are being discovered between bone development and chronological age.

Standardised mental tests have been devised for children from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ years of age. An important person on the staff is the liaison officer, who links the home life with the school and makes possible a unified report on a child embracing

both school and home. Sleep and diet at home, for example, have important reactions upon conduct at school. One of the conditions required of a parent before a child is accepted into the school is that she shall spend some days in the school each year.

In summarising my impressions of progressive education in the States, four points stand out clearly in my mind as vital contributions to our pioneer work. First and foremost there is the deep, underlying philosophy of Dewey, which in theory permeates all American educational adventure. Then there is the new, scientific child study. Growth, whether physical, mental, or even moral, is tested, analysed and measured in order that it may continue without inhibitions, and that educational practice may not remain dependent entirely upon the intuition of a few gifted teachers, but be supported by scientific principles. All work in the study of education, both as a science and as an art, is greatly facilitated by the co-operation of parents, teachers and psychologists in this crusade on behalf of youth. Parents, as well as teachers, take an intelligent interest in education and belong to associations which stand for progress. The parents themselves are urging forward educational research, are demanding new conditions for their children, and are often instrumental in founding progressive schools. Again, all the progressive educators, whether parents or teachers, keep abreast of the times. They seem versed in all our European educational developments. They read, travel, discuss, argue and push ahead with dynamic energy worthy of the pioneer. In England we are proud of our traditional stability. They are proud of their traditional urge to move forward, to explore virgin soil, or, in the words of Browning's *Paracelsus*:

To follow knowledge like a sinking star
Beyond the utmost bounds of human thought

Science and Art of Education

The complexity of educational techniques, psychologies and philosophies has given birth to two definite schools of

thought, two apparently opposing methods of approach. Whereas the one formulates a school of individual psychology and is concerned with statistical measurements which establish a body of scientific principles, the other studies growth in its entirety, views the child as a whole, and obtains knowledge through intuitive contacts. The one works from the circumference to the centre; the other works from the centre to the circumference. The difference between the Platonic and Aristotelian methods of approach runs through the whole of life. Everywhere are to be found the "life producing" and the "form building" forces. Both are necessary to the growth and life of any organism; stagnation and death follow the withdrawal of either one. So in the educational movement, because it is alive and vital, we find the two elements very sharply contrasted.

Both schools have their dangers, their strengths and their weaknesses. Nothing but statistics and measurements kill life. Any scientifically planned method may become over-organised, may emphasise the system and forget the reason for its existence. A method which hardens into rigidity in the hands of the teacher will kill spontaneity and the creative urge. On the other hand, it is only the gifted few who can afford to depend on intuition and to ignore science. These few rare souls, who are the born teachers, may be led by their intuitive understanding to achieve great things, but it is only the few who reach these heights; and their results may be lost for lack of record. There can necessarily be only a few such teachers, and we must therefore rely upon many substitutes and aids and new methods which, though not fundamental, may, in their various ways, bring us a step nearer our goal: the release of creative consciousness in the child, and the development of his "individual uniqueness." We are familiar with the possibilities of the "creative" method when handled by the capable teacher; we are also aware of its incompleteness when handled by the teacher who, in

addition to lacking the power of the *real* teacher, has none of the props of scientific method to urge and direct her.

To us in England the extremely scientific attitude to the child and his education may seem offensive. It must not, however, be forgotten that Americans are essentially a scientific people who seek their knowledge through analysis. At the same time, many of the leaders are alive to the fact that after the initial analysis comes the need for synthesis. Here lies the misunderstanding which is the root of intolerance. Both methods are needed. Each has its function, each can give balance to the other and neither is the royal road of progress. The Platonists see the vision, but they need the Aristotelians to help them bring that vision to practical reality. Likewise the Aristotelians, immersed in scientific formulæ, need the Platonists to give them sense of direction. We have need of our scientists and of our artists. Above all, we have need of the wide vision and the tolerant outlook which allows each to work in his own sphere, but which sees the ultimate goal as a synthesis of the best in both schools of thought.

Secondary Education

In viewing the European educational systems we must remember that part of our own secondary system has its roots in the monastery, and that much of the monastic element still remains. The segregation of the sexes, the individual subject-matter divorced from the actual living of life in the larger world, the over-specialisation of teachers with the consequent concentration on subjects rather than on psychology, the lack of relationship with industry and commerce, are not the best preparation of modern youth for the world of to-day. Yet English secondary education has had a great past and has contributed as much to Western culture as any country in Europe. Moreover, it preserves strong elements of the traditional English character—thoroughness and devotion to intellectual ideals. It must be remem-

bered, too, that secondary education implies a complexity of form ranging from the great public and grammar schools, with their traditions of past centuries, to the private and state-aided, secondary and central and technical schools, of the last quarter of a century. For the most part the history of English education seems to be the story of great Head Masters, such as Arnold of Rugby and Sanderson of Oundle; men who abhor conferences and prefer to seek their inspiration smoking their pipes or mowing their lawns! Unfortunately educational genius of this kind often dies with the individual and does not pass out into the wider field of education.

English state-aided secondary education must be looked upon as a lusty and healthy infant. It is opening doors that were closed to thousands of children in the past; that in itself is a colossal achievement. In the secondary school almost all ranks and classes meet on an equality; there is friendliness of relationship between teachers and taught and a wide range of extra-curricula activities, while the standard of attainment in the school work has risen notably within the last few years. Here and there individual schools are working for definite advance. Self-discipline and individual methods, particularly the Dalton, are being put on trial. Yet, while fully aware of all that has been done in our public and in our secondary schools, we are most of us agreed that our secondary education is out of touch with modern psychology and that it is less open to new ideas than are the other fields of education. This can be largely accounted for by its abnormal growth, a growth which has been too rapid to allow of far-reaching departures from tradition. Examinations in their present form are, of course, a further stumbling-block to progress. They keep the curriculum rigid, affect methods, and ward off any attempt to reform. Grant-earning and over-inspection are additional bugbears in some schools.

Mr. E. Salter Davies, Director of Education for Kent, writing of the secondary school, says:

"It must be admitted that the expansion in numbers and equipment and the improved financial position of the teachers have not as yet produced a corresponding broadening of outlook. The ideals of the schools are too circumscribed. The schools now draw their pupils from a wide area of the adolescent population, but they have not yet adjusted themselves to the immense developments which are evident in the world around. In fact, the outlook has remained academic.

"There is no doubt that the schemes of examination do impose on the schools a certain type of syllabus which too often seems to the pupils to have little or no connection with the needs of any occupation they are likely to follow. This is true, despite the fact that the examining bodies have offered a number of options. For any remedy to be effected there must be a broadening of the knowledge and interests of the teachers, extending outside the immediate duties of the school into the general affairs of the world, or some activity where they will be employed with other men or women belonging to different callings.

"On the other hand, the accepted and well-established activities of our secondary schools are in a most healthy condition. School games, with a multitude of school clubs and organisations, are so active that no boy or girl escapes their influence. Best of all, there is no weakening of the moral discipline and corporate spirit of the schools."

We need a curriculum that will respond more closely to the needs of different types of children and to the rapidly changing modern world. The curriculum must be dynamic; it must grow and change with the Age. There should be more attempt to show the inter-relationship of one subject with another, so that school work can be experienced as a continuous process of contacting life at numerous important and related points. In this connection it is interesting to note that the best Dalton Plan schools have now passed beyond the stage of mere re-organisation of timetable, and

have come to a unification of subject-

so largely into modern school practice. In Miss Parkhurst's Junior School some very interesting work is being done in this direction.

Apart from having to cope with rapidity of growth and examination requirements, the secondary schools have been given no lead. They have had no Froebel, no Montessori, to inspire them. The time is now ripe for reform. Large classes, "chalk and talk" methods, artificial divisions of knowledge, belong to the past. We are on the eve of an educational revolution in our secondary schools which is long overdue, and which will give to the coming generations opportunities of development hitherto undreamed of. This new education is not a matter of introducing the same old subject-matter in a more attractive form, nor is it our aim "to leave the child free to do only what, in his ignorance, he pleases to do, but rather to guide him into finding delight in mental and bodily activity." It necessitates a change in the understanding of the nature of the child and of our purpose in life.

How can these changes be brought about? There is no royal road, and for everyone there is an individual way, but

we would suggest that the first step may be taken by a study of the modern philosophy of education, of modern psychology, and by keeping an open mind to research that is being undertaken. These are all indications of a new urge towards the Light in education. We are waiting for a twentieth century philosophy which will reveal education as growth, as expansion of consciousness. We await in education genius equal to that given to the discovery and conquest of the physical world; we need our Copernicus, our Marconi, our Einstein. Meanwhile, let us remind ourselves that genius is rarely an isolated phenomenon. It comes rather to crown and synthesise the efforts of many lesser men who have prepared the soil on which it blossoms.

(This number of the magazine should be read in conjunction with the April, 1928, number, which was devoted to the same subject—*Progressive Education in England*. We regret that in our survey we have had to omit any comprehensive reference to that most important subject, the training of teachers. Also we have not been able to include an account of the influence of Froebel on education in England nor of the work of the P.N.E.U.)

THE FIFTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Denmark, 8th-22nd August, 1928

The date of the next Conference of the New Education Fellowship, which will be held either at Copenhagen or Elsinore, has been fixed so as not to conflict with the Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, which will meet at Geneva, 25th July—4th August. Attendance at both conferences will be possible and parties arranged to travel from Geneva to Denmark.

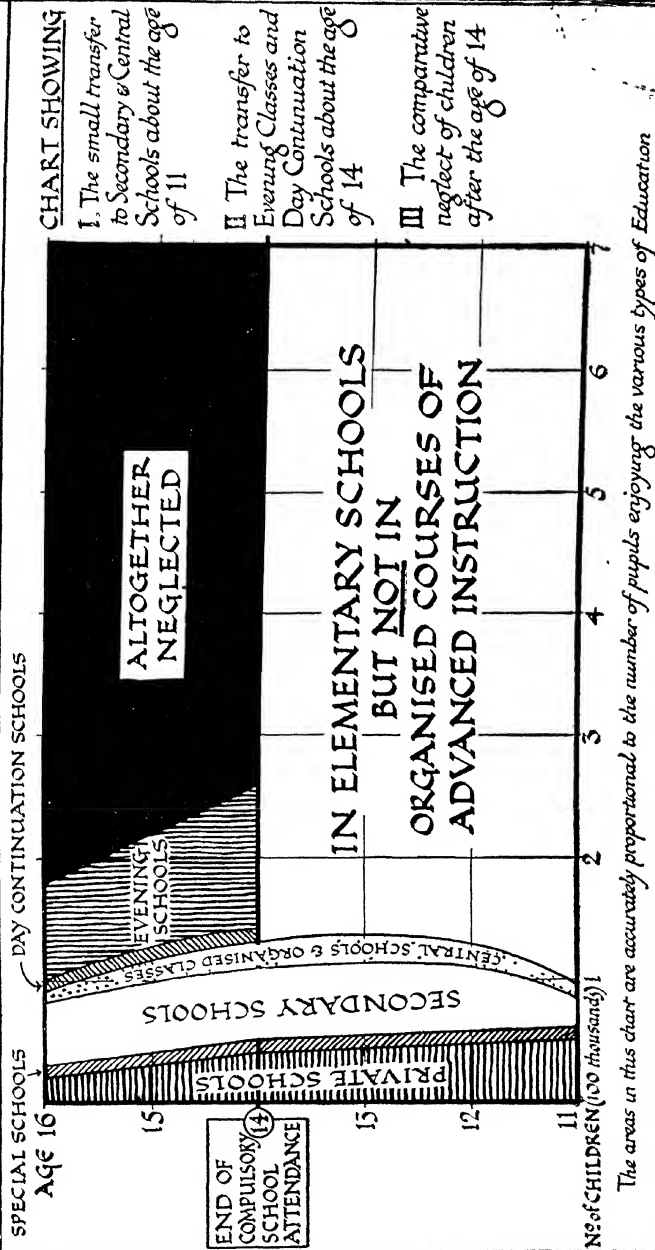
The Denmark Conference will deal with the Philosophy, Psychology and Technique of the New Education. A special feature will be concentrated courses of study on some of the main problems of the New Education.

Further details will be published in the October number of *The New Era*.

OUR EDITOR'S FORTHCOMING VISIT TO S. AFRICA.

The last few months of this year and the first few months of 1929 will find our Editor paying a return visit to S. Africa, where she hopes to meet again many of the friends who welcomed her so cordially on her last visit in 1927.

THE PROBLEM OF EDUCATION BETWEEN THE AGES OF 11 AND 16



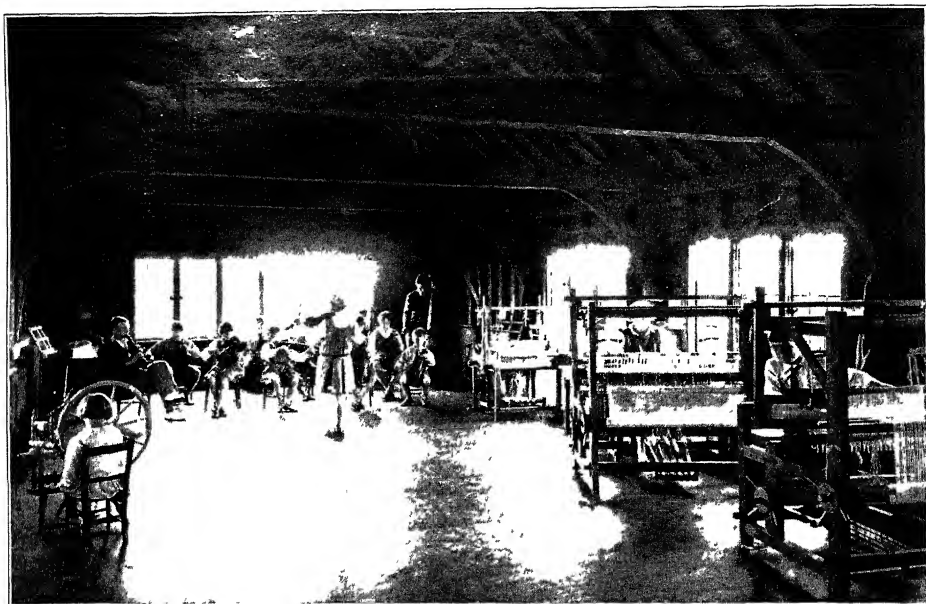
This diagram is reproduced from "The Next Step in National Education," being the Report of a Committee consisting of the following —

The Rt Hon The Viscount Haldane, F R S, K T, O M
 R F Cholmeley, C B E, M S
 Percy Alden, M A
 F W Goldstone, M A
 Sir Benjamin Gott, M A

Albert Mansbridge, M A
 Professor T P Nunn, M A, D Sc
 G S M Ellis, M A
 A J Lynch.

Published by the University of London Press Ltd

BEDALES SCHOOL, PETERSFIELD, HANTS



Orchestra in the Barn



Hand Work in Winter

Bernard Shaw : A Talk on Education

THE Editor records with pleasure an interview she was recently granted by Mr. Bernard Shaw. Upright in figure and dynamic in personality, he received her in his flat overlooking the Thames, and, in his gentle and exquisitely courteous way, discussed with her his views on education.

The Editor explained that the New Education Fellowship was a band of people seeking new ways of understanding the child and of liberating the powers within him. Yes, Mr. Shaw replied, there is always a *permanent* child population, though individuals, inclined to think of their own children as growing up, seem to forget this. The permanent child population should have its own peculiar rights, its constitutional rights. The nearest approaches to these were to be found in the Boy Scout and Girl Guide movements, though there was always the danger of their passing into the hands of people who would wish to educate in the narrow sense. The "worst abortionists" in the world, he thought, were the people who try to mould children's characters.

The bulk of men and women were ruined by education, the ordinary run of parents having very little idea of what real education was. There is no use in agitating merely for more education, as is being done in the case of secondary education just now. This would simply mean that more schools would be built, and more individuals spoiled. Education must be brought into line with the nature of the child and of his needs in modern society. Very few children, if truthful, would say that they liked school, and for that reason the great test of a school would be to tell the children they might go home if they wished. The number who remained would indicate how far the education they were receiving was "real" education. Secondary education Mr. Shaw thought quite dreadful, the great bulk of it being simply an accumulation

of facts for examinations. It is increasingly urgent that the whole trend of it should be altered; a child should be able to have the choice of other types of education if it had been found, after testing him for the purpose, that he was unable to profit by an academic education. Children should, of course, be shown the necessity of learning the fundamentals, but they should in these be given some practical end to work towards.

At present, two of the most difficult subjects the mind of man can tackle, grammar and mathematics, are taught to children at a very tender age regardless of whether they can profit by these subjects or not. They are stuffed with things in which they have little or no interest. They should have education that will interest them and that will be of special use to them as individuals later on. They should have freedom, but with that they should have a sense of law and order. Mr. Shaw agreed that "life situations" such as grew up under the Project Method were infinitely better than the old methods of teaching. He did not believe in any one system or method. The true teacher was born, not trained, and teaching was a real calling. There are very few real teachers in the world.

Mr. Shaw thought there ought to be some way of testing people's fitness for public service. It ought to be possible to say to one, you are the type for a parish council; to another, you should be on a county council; to a third, you should be in the House of Commons. Only special types with a flair for diplomacy should ever be able to enter the Cabinet. Specialised education for different types would emphasise the fitness of individuals for various kinds of public service.

Experimental schools Mr. Shaw approves of, and thinks it an unfortunate fact that they require so much capital to run well. Generally the people with money are without educational ideals, and

people with ideals, should they suddenly come into money, usually turn to traditional ways and send their children to the traditional schools.

Mr. Shaw's philosophy of life is contained in the Prefaces to his books, which he hopes to gather into one book some day. To the suggestion, often made to him, that he should allow school editions of his plays to be published, he will have nothing to say. People loved Shake-

speare at one time, he said; but Shakespeare became a school "subject" and was forced upon children, and now he is loathed.

Mr. Shaw said that he had nothing new to say on education but that he was always glad to support in any way he could the people who were trying to make the public realise how inadequate the present system of education was as an introduction to modern life.

Where Education Fails Most Obviously

By Norman Angell

IN the last twenty years we have seen organised society over large areas of Western Europe—where civilization seemed to have taken its firmest hold—reduced for a time to unmanageable chaos. Men could no longer feed themselves in their cities; they saw their children die from cold and hunger before their eyes; ancient devices like that of money got out of control; the safety and order of life, which it had taken centuries to establish, disappeared almost in a moment.

I do not refer to the war itself, the material destruction of which was, in any ultimate and fundamental sense, less than that of the period which followed. I refer to the condition which an ancient centre of civilization like Vienna witnessed for a year or two, and Russian cities for much longer.

We have already forgotten for the most part that time. The conservatively-minded amongst us profess to be disturbed at the prospect of a possible social revolution, of what might happen to property and security if Socialists came to power, oblivious, somehow, of the fact that the major part of Europe has already, in our time, suffered a social and economic revolution in which the property of whole orders, like the bourgeois and professional classes of Germany and Austria, has been

engulfed, and in which the corresponding classes in France and Italy have suffered only slightly less severely.

We in England have suffered less in that direct way, but our fundamental economic position has been profoundly shaken, and if the forces of disruption and disintegration in Europe as a whole become dominant, these islands will not be able to support their present population on any standard which could be called civilized.

It was not Socialism, nor the activities of "ignorant agitators," which brought about these disasters. They were the outcome—the inevitable outcome—of a policy of anti-social Nationalism which for generations has been fostered by learning and education everywhere. The particular social and political philosophy which produced this result was sometimes most mischievous—as perhaps in Prussia—where education was most widespread. The one state in Europe which more than any other was ruled by an educated order was the state whose policy most frequently defied common sense and the self-evident.

I say self-evident because it is that aspect of this phenomenon which should provoke most reflection among educators. These disasters and dangers—which may well be repeated in conditions which will make recovery therefrom the next time.

impossible—are not caused by lack of knowledge, in the sense in which we lack the knowledge to cure cancer; they are due to a failure to apply knowledge which is of universal possession. They are due, usually, to a defiance of the self-evident.

And that indeed is the outstanding failure of politics, of man in his social relation. Take an illustration which I happen to have used in another connection.

At a time of crisis in Britain—unemployment, low wages, declining foreign trade, bad housing, danger of war—a certain popular candidate is elected again and again to Parliament against all comers. A careful analysis proves that he owes his popularity to facts broadly equivalent to these (like these, that is, though these do not happen to be the particular facts): He had married a very famous actress, native of the city for which he stood; had during the war killed seven Germans with his own hands and won the Victoria Cross; and most important of all, was the best player in the city's football team and usually ensured its victory over rival teams. No rival candidate could make headway against these factors of popularity. Yet it is evident, a fact known to every voter, that the capacity to marry actresses, kill Germans or kick goals is no qualification at all for the job for which the electors were sending him to Parliament. The one fact which was plainest and beyond all doubt was the one fact disregarded. All the voters were perfectly capable of seeing the fact if intelligence of any degree had been applied. Intelligence was not applied. Intelligence abdicated, as it does when whole nations insist, say, at the close of a war upon making a settlement they would never dream of making if they waited ten years, though the facts are equally available at both periods. The voters for the footballer are betrayed by an irrelevant sympathy, as at the peace table the nations are betrayed by an irrelevant hostility. In neither case are the people interested in the welfare of their country, only in the

satisfaction of a temper; in neither case are they aware that the self-evident facts are being disregarded.

The phenomenon raises, as already suggested, disturbing questions touching the utility of education, as we now know it, in the task of helping mankind to live together. If we are unable, in the guidance of our conduct, to use the knowledge we already possess, if we can ignore the facts we already know, it will serve little purpose to give us a knowledge of further facts. It will be just as easy to ignore those also.

That indeed helps us to understand what examination of the disasters of the last fifteen years reveals, namely, that the educated classes, like those which formed the governing order in Germany, were just as subject to the follies which have nearly destroyed us as the "uneducated" section of the nations. Unfortunately, indeed, it is necessary to put the case more strongly.

It is impossible to examine the growth of disruptive Nationalism in Europe, whether in the Prussia of yesterday or the Italy of to-day, without being struck by the enormous part played therein by the educated, by learning and literature. It is not the peasant toiling in his fields, nor the craftsman busy with the creation of his hands, who gets poisoned so badly with this insane root. Left to himself the worker would probably be indifferent enough to the holy mission of his nation to dominate mankind, or even to "redeem" distant territory. But played upon by the poet, the historian, the journalist, the orator, the politician, the philosopher, the professor of all kinds, the preacher, he becomes the victim—and instrument—of the theories hatched in the studies.

Education, the influence that is of academic institutions, of the classes those institutions turned out, of the special traditions like Nationalism which they nurtured and developed, the philosophies of life and politics most favoured by school and university—organized education in this sense—has worsened the

follies and errors from which we have suffered. Not only, therefore, is it true to say that most of those follies would have been avoided if those who suffered by them had applied the knowledge which is a commonplace of our daily lives, but it is also true to say that education helped to obscure the commonplaces which might have saved us, and that the errors themselves were in large part due to the express efforts of the educated classes, were in a special sense their creation.

These brief notes must be limited to the making of a diagnosis of that aspect of the disease most brought to the notice of a man who for twenty years as a publicist has struggled with certain aspects of public folly. But just a hint of the direction in which remedy may be found is called for.

In so far as the acquisition of knowledge is deemed education, we must recognise that it is the capacity to interpret facts, to draw conclusion from them, to apply these conclusions to the ever new situations of daily life, which is important, not the facts themselves. Yet we neglect the technique of interpretation (which should be something other than

formal logic). We deem a grammar of speech indispensable, but we have not even begun to devise a grammar of truth. We deem elementary physics an indispensable part of every child's education; we try to give it some understanding of the underlying laws of matter, but we leave out usually any corresponding aid in the understanding of the conditions and mechanism of society. We compel pupils to know something of the movements of the heavenly bodies, but nothing of, say, the mechanism of the money system, its function in our social and economic structure. Yet to believe the earth to be flat is not socially so dangerous as to believe that the foreigner should send us "money, not goods."

A knowledge of the nature of these social and economic mechanisms by means of which society functions is indispensable to wisdom in the collective decisions which, as voters, all are called upon to make. If education can make no contribution to this field of understanding, it can hardly profess to be equipping the young for the part which later they must play in the management of that society of which they are to be part.

(Continued from page 148)

Above all, we want our "citizens of to-morrow" to possess the creative as opposed to the destructive spirit, we want them to wield "the sword of self-sacrifice," to be willing to pay the price of Peace—for the great gift of Universal Peace will not be ours without suffering. We cultivate, therefore, the international spirit in every way possible, we follow closely the work of the League of Nations, of all Peace Societies, and of those who strive to reduce armaments, and we give personal help, as far as in us lies. We understand clearly that Peace must be sought for, striven for, paid for, and that "Peace is not absence of War, but the Strength which is born of vigour of Soul."

It is impossible to give an exhaustive account of our work and ideals in so short a space, but we are willing to answer any letters asking for information and will most cordially welcome anyone who would like to visit the school.

Other open-air schools of interest in the London district are—**Birley House School**, Forest Hill; **Montpelier House**, Kentish Town, **Shooters Hill Open-Air School**, Woolwich; **Faircress Open-Air School**, Barking Town, **Knot's Green School**, Leyton. Also **Ragworth Open-Air School**, Stockton-on-Tees; **Arboretum North Open-Air School**, Nottingham, and the **Uffculme Open-Air School**, Birmingham, and the Open-Air Schools under the Derby Education Committee should be mentioned.

(Continued from page 150)

her dots. These dolls (known as Miss Red, etc.) are fixed on coloured boards, facing the class, each has her figure value above, her dots at her feet. Always in view, they are useful as references, many puzzled people walking up to see how many dots this doll has, to feel how many beads that bird carries.

The frames (6 x 4) are strung in six lines. Red one takes the top place when in use. The spinning-boards, discs about eight inches round, have the six coloured plates round the edge, the small plates red, the large ones purple. There is a hole in the centre and a cane spindle for spinning. The tablets, tied in bundles, are smaller editions of the number ladies' boards.

Each child owns a set of these toys. For newcomers and tiny tots the slide, click or grasp of the beads, the spin-spin of the plates, the turn over of the tablets, represent their first use joyous movement. For old-timers, however, they mean a really worth-while game. They set up their frame; they place the spindle in the hole and spin once. They catch a colour, blue; find blue beads and push them slowly along, counting; then find the blue tablet and trace the figure, touch the dots, and pretend to transfer them to the blue plate. Here we see our colours helping to beat deeper and wider that first track. The more chances given each colour, the larger the group of associations. The jingles and chants for sound and numbers form fresh links with memory.

Notes on Some Progressive Private Schools in England

Decentralisation : St. George's (Co-educational) School, Harpenden, Herts.

ANY form of decentralisation, which lessens the corporate unity of a school (such as the house system almost universal in our Public Schools), is a definite departure from the logic or the ideal of education. But experience has taught the Head Master, Rev. Cecil Grant, that some form of decentralisation not inconsistent with the fullest and most real retention by the Head Master of responsibility for every individual entrusted to him, is both necessary and desirable where numbers exceed, say, 150. There has at St. George's for long been a Lower School (ages 8-12) with a master with special responsibilities. Recently, with encouraging results, a further division has been made into Upper, Middle, and Lower Schools, the ages in the Middle School being roughly 12-15. The division should be sufficiently emphasised to give a sense of separate responsibility both to the staff and to the boys and girls. It should, for example, be possible for the Middle School to feel that in this matter or in that it was falling below or rising above the general standard. But there should certainly be no feeling of living in compartments, with a line to be crossed sooner or later into a new condition with new standards. Considerable interchange of teachers between Upper and Middle, and even (though this is in practice less easy) Lower School is, Mr. Grant thinks, desirable.

Chapel Services

Mr. Grant has been convinced by experience that a school without a chapel or a building *set apart* as the centre of the spiritual adventure, cannot be other than as a broom without a handle. Educationally one can do without almost every kind of equipment, and even make a virtue of that necessity: but not without

this. Having a chapel, every means in the teacher's power must be employed to make it not only a possession of the community, but the possession of each individual. Formal services will do neither. Services thought out day by day to meet the needs of the moment and to reflect the passing life and effort of the school may achieve the former; but if the individual is to feel that it is *his* chapel, in which his quest for a religion finds its inspiration, he must have a personal share in drawing up the services as well as in carrying them out.

At St. George's, where they have their own Hymn Book and their own Book of Prayers (printed on their own press), each Form undertakes one service in the week, and individuals are encouraged to ask for any hymn or reading or prayer or subject for prayer of which he feels the need. Mr. Grant is of the opinion that this is to be counted as by far the most successful of the traditions evolved in the course of twenty-one years. It has taken much time and patience to establish and any hasty plunge into a cut-and-dried scheme would probably be fatal. Four years' experience has brought about interesting developments in the use of the Book of Prayers, which contains nearly a thousand prayers and over a thousand subjects for prayer in the index. The prayers are divided into six sections: (1) Prayers from hymns (2) Prayers of the first six centuries. (3) Prayers from the Bible. (4) Prayers founded on the words of Christ. (5) Prayers of famous men. (6) Special prayers for school and nation. At first the Upper School used section 6 almost exclusively, whilst the Lower School used 1 and 6. Other sections are now coming into much more general use. Especially noticeable is the discovery of the beauty and helpfulness of the prayers

of the first six centuries, which were at first regarded as too abstract and general for the purposes of boys and girls who felt very definite need of very definite things. Hymns, which for years were chosen almost exclusively for their tunes, tend now to be fitted in with the general subject of the service. It is seldom now that in "Lead, Kindly Light," the school is asked to sing: "It was not ever thus. . . . I loved the garish day. . . ."

Property Court

Two or three years ago a property

commission was formed to deal with the damage being suffered by school property. It was so completely successful that it died a natural death through having an insufficient number of cases to judge. Recently it has been found advisable to form another property commission to check the large amount of unnecessary damage. It consists of a chairman, secretary, and representative of each Form, society, and sitting-room. Its function is not merely to judge and, if necessary punish, offenders, but to prevent damage by taking precautionary steps.

St. Christopher School, Letchworth, Herts.

Work

SINCE any notice of the school's activities last appeared in *The New Era* much has happened. Gradual developments in the educational scheme are finding expression through concentration, and changes in the location of buildings provide the opportunity for a more rapid readjustment of educational practice. The last few years have seen a consolidation of the academic work of the Upper school, a development of advanced courses in most subjects (for Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board Higher Certificate, University Entrance Scholarships, London Intermediate, etc.) being accompanied by a relegation of the School Certificate examination to a normal position in the children's experience. Examinations thus cause less excitement and children of the right type for this work look forward to them as affairs to be taken in their ordinary stride. Concurrently, considerable developments have taken place in vocational training and children have remained at school longer than they would otherwise have done to train for Montessori teaching, for various forms of handicraft, and for practical careers. This has been accomplished without diminution of the stress on the importance of the education of the emotions through art, music and drama. Various experiments in time-table organisation have been tried—all on individual lines

Serious and successful attempts have been made to arrive at a synthesis of subjects with a view to the simplification of teaching, the saving of time, and, above all, to helping the child to realize the unity of life.

Government

Progress has been made along the lines of real freedom, self-government (government of the self), and co-education, and the various governmental institutions of the school have done much to build a body of tradition stabilizing a practice capable of variation as need arises. Constant co-operation in various civic activities in the larger community of the town is widening the outlook and leading to a broader sympathy and understanding.

The School

An important change will take place in the autumn when St. Christopher will remove to new buildings erected round the playing-fields at Arundale. The Montessori departments will be transferred to "The Old House"—once the old Rectory of Letchworth—where they will have the advantage of quiet and of a beautiful garden with some of the finest trees in the First Garden City. The Junior School will remove to new buildings connected with the junior boarding house at Little Arundale where, with a large garden and orchard, they will have

a more spacious existence and the opportunity to practise those various forms of educational "project" necessary to the activity period. A large and beautiful library, designed to accommodate all individual workers, forms the core of the Senior School buildings at Arundale, while a spacious laboratory is the centre of the mathematics and science block. Arts and crafts are well provided for. New changing rooms, shower rooms and plunges meet a long-felt want in connection with the games and on the physical side generally. Concentration with decentralization sums up the position.

Bedales School, Petersfield, Hants

As the life and work of the school is well-known to many readers of *The New Era*, it will be sufficient to confine our present notice to developments in the time-table, which has undergone interesting changes since the War.

Time-Table. In those days we worked on the old-fashioned plan of a "fixed" time-table. Every period in the week was definitely allotted to a subject, and if there were six periods in a day, six different subjects took their turn. Being coloured differently on the chart, it made a very pretty patch-work quilt effect.

Then came the Dalton Plan. In company with scores of other schools we tried it—or a modification of it—and it worked wonders. Children could come to a subject when they liked, and stay as long as they liked, and could work at their own pace. There were a few "fixed" group lessons left, but not many. The patch-work quilt had become a white counterpane, and each individual wrought his own design upon it. This lasted three years.

In the autumn of 1923 we determined to try a new plan—the plan which, with slight adjustments and compromises (every time-table is a compromise), is working to-day. To begin with, it is a reversion to the fixed time-table, but with several important differences. We take the fortnight as our unit, instead of the week, and the subjects will be found to group themselves almost entirely in the first week or in the second week. Thus, a given form will have all its Science and Mathematics in the first week, all its French, English, and Handicrafts in the second week. At present this form seems to spread its Latin, History, and Geography equally across the two weeks—part of the compromise, probably, and not part of the original design.

Furthermore, we give double periods (1½ hour) to a subject, as often as the time-table will admit. At first this proposal was greeted with howls. Mathematics for an hour and a half on end—how ghastly! Or French—ugh! Not so bad for science practicals, perhaps, and for Handicrafts. As a

St. Christopher Circle

Another interesting aspect of the School community is the Parents' Circle. This was formed some years ago to encourage co-operation between parents of pupils past and present, and the staff, in developing the educational ideals of the school. A formal Committee composed of six parents and about as many staff arranges two or three meetings a term, which are held in the school. Each meeting is preceded by a social time, when opportunity is given parents to meet the staff, discuss their children, and raise any points which may, in their opinion, require adjustment.

matter of fact it has turned out to be one of the strong points of the time-table. It has done away with the restless, patch-work effect of the old time-table. Both staff and children are less harassed, less disturbed by the constant change from subject to subject or class to class. In a double-period there is time for much variety of treatment in a given subject. Most teachers use the first 15 or 20 minutes for a group lesson or demonstration, leaving a good hour for the children to work individually at their own speed, either on the subject matter just discussed, or on their own original projects. Here it will be seen that we try to retain much of the freedom of individual effort which the Dalton Plan taught us to value so highly, though the time-table is still "fixed" for at least five days each week.

Saturday morning differs from all other days in being set aside solely for individual work. There are no fixed classes. Every teacher is sitting in his subject room, ready to help whoever may come, from youngest to oldest. Every child is free to spend Saturday as he will—all morning at one subject, or shared among four, just as he likes. Dalton reigns supreme.

Incidentally the double period has gone far to solve the problem of music lessons and practice. These are not allowed to break into the first half of a double period, but children may be taken from the second half, when presumably the group lesson is over and they are working individually. So there is the least possible disturbance of class work.

We must not omit to mention the part the Library plays in the school curriculum. Raised as a war memorial, it is a large building capable of seating more than half the school at once. It contains some 11,500 volumes of reference and fiction. Strict silence is always maintained in the Library, and it is used at all hours of the day for quiet work, reading, writing, and looking up facts in preparation for a class lecture or a project. The second half of a double period may often be used in this way.

This Library has done much to encourage a spirit of scholarship and an understanding of work for work's sake.

The Garden School, Wycombe Court, Lane End, Bucks.

After a somewhat chequered and nomadic early life, The Garden School, at the age of 10½ years, has now settled down in a permanent home at Wycombe Court, Lane End, in a lovely part of the Chiltern Hills, among gorse commons and beech woods, some 550 feet above sea level. In such an environment, the children, breathing the air of the hills, surrounded by the beauty of rose-pergolas, rock gardens, spacious fields and fine trees, have wonderful aids to their physical, mental and moral development.

The main house is a large building, facing S.E., with lofty rooms and large windows, overlooking a stretch of well-timbered park land and commanding magnificent views of the surrounding country.

The "Lyceum" or School House, opened after Easter, is built round three sides of a square, facing almost due south, so that it avoids most of the winds and catches all the sunshine. It has a well-equipped craft-room, a library, a science laboratory and class-rooms. The windows of the craft-room, library and laboratory are entirely, and those of the class-rooms partially, glazed with Vita-glass, so that, even when the weather is unfavourable for out-of-door work, the children are not entirely deprived of the benefit of the ultra-violet rays of the sunlight.

It is difficult to imagine any schemes of development which will not ultimately be possible of achievement in the new home. The school is looking forward hopefully to an increase in numbers, which will justify the completion of the architect's plan for the main house, the carrying out of a scheme for a Sanatorium in the grounds, the release of the fields from the occupation of a farmer who, at present, rents them, so that they can be converted into a nine-hole golf course, the erection of a small telescope in the tower for the observation of the heavenly bodies, the laying out of a series of bowers in front of the Lyceum for open-air work of the various groups, the enlargement of the swimming pool, which has already replaced the old water-lily pond, the laying down of several hard tennis courts, the building of an enclosure for sun-bathing and of a series of sound-proof music-rooms and so on through a long list of dreams, which, alas! are only dreams at present, but will all be realisable in the near (or remote?) future.

Careers. Parents are sometimes suspicious of the results of the "new" methods of education and wonder what the children brought up on these lines will be fitted for when school life is over. A young school cannot, in the nature of things, have many successes to show as the result of its training. Children who entered The Garden School at the age of 8 during its first term are only 18 or 19 now. Perhaps, however, an idea may be given of the way in which some of the "old" girls are at present following up their school training by definite preparation for future careers—

A. is just finishing her third year at Oxford and is taking her finals in June; B. took her B.A. degree at the same University last June and has since published a novel; C. gained a first prize for Composition at the Slade School of Art last year, had a picture in the exhibition of the New English Art Club and designed costumes for the tableaux presented by the Slade School at the Chelsea Arts

Ball, D. gained two scholarships at the Slade School in successive years and has now been given an appointment on the staff, being the first woman to receive that honour; E. won the bronze medal for sculpture at the Polytechnic School of Art at the end of her first year, entered the Royal College of Art and has now won her A.R.C.A. in sculpture; F. is going in for her teacher's certificate at the end of a three years' training at the London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics in June; G. is in training for a diploma in Domestic Science at Berridge House; H. is selling her own pottery and executing orders for embroidery; I. is studying French, German, shorthand and typewriting preparatory to seeking a post as Secretary-Chauffeuse; J. is a student at the Margaret Morris School of Classical Dancing at Chelsea; K. has taken up modern languages and is now proficient in English, French, German and Italian, besides having some knowledge of Swedish and Russian; L. is coaching chorus girls at the new School of Drama, opened in Dublin at the instigation of Mr W.B. Yeats; M. has, for some years, been dancing for the Arts League of Service; N. has begun her journalistic career by getting a small job on "The Evening News"; two of her articles have appeared in "The Express"; O. has kennels and breeds Alsatians for which she has won many prizes. But enough! Whether these "new" education children pass examinations or not, it is obvious that they are going to be the people who *do* things!

Wychwood School for Girls, Banbury Road, Oxford

This school, of which Miss M.L. Lee and Miss G. Coster are the Principals, was started thirty-one years ago. One of the most remarkable facts about it is that in all that time it has been free from any approach to an epidemic and from all serious illness. This fact alone, in a school of 60 pupils of whom 30 are boarders, is a proof not only that intelligent care is taken of the children, but also that unusual harmony and balance exist in the school life as a whole. The work is founded on early hours, fresh air, plenty of plain food, and a keen interest in life. There is a staff of 10 exclusive of special visiting teachers, and the aim is to give each pupil the treatment and attention necessary to her individual development and best suited to her mental capacity and temperament. The examination and the non-examination types are equally considered, the staff is encouraged to work for the future good of each pupil rather than for the credit she might bring to the school or class. In addition to the usual exercises and games, sculling, punting and canoeing are taught. The life of the boarders approaches as nearly as possible to family life, with few rules and rare penalties; the children are shown how to bring consideration, cheerfulness and fun to the common stock of pleasure without sacrificing their own individuality; each is helped to grow into the best of which she is capable. Modified self-government is in operation, aiming at true co-operation and liberating energy for employment in the interests of mutual service. There is no Wychwood "type"; the girls are taught to be themselves, and to be courteous, sincere, and sensible.

Miss Coster, author of *Psycho-Analysis for Normal People*, has carried out some interesting psychological work at the school.

Duncan House, Clifton, Bristol.

It would be interesting to know whether there are any Dalton Schools that have made no modifications of the method in the last few years. The fact that all make so many changes and yet confidently call themselves Dalton Schools is a proof of the versatility and fundamental vigour of the system.

Educational Scheme. In place of the Dalton assignment cards Miss E. C. Wilson, Principal of Duncan House School for Girls, planned a method that has been in use for nearly three years. Every girl at the beginning of the year gets an assignment book. In it is a set of cards, a different colour for each subject. Next to the card she enters the assignment in that subject and following the assignment, the test papers. At the end of the year she has in her book all the assignments in every Dalton subject. On the card the work is marked up according to its quality—minimum, average, maximum—and on the back of the card is the comment of the teacher on each month's work. The fact that the work is synthetic makes this record the more interesting. Valuable as Dalton is as a method, Miss Wilson does not think its full value is to be had with a scattered curriculum.

The keynote of the scheme is that the main subjects must be taught synthetically, that is, in mutual relation. There is a three weeks' assignment; then clearing day, revision day, test day, returned test day (a holiday for those who have no returns), then a new assignment day. The scheme of education is arranged for a five years' course. The whole is intended, roughly speaking, for children from the age of 10 to the age of 15. Before that they are in the Preparatory School, while the sixth year is given to preparation for the School Certificate or for Matriculation. To take an example General History is divided roughly into five periods—(1) The early civilizations—Egypt, Assyria, Chaldea, (2) the beginnings of European civilization—Greece, Rome, etc., (3) the Middle Ages, (4) the Era of Political Revolution; (5) Modern History and Revision. These periods form each one the subject of one year's correlated study. At the end of her synthetic course a girl has five volumes, each one containing the assignments which she has worked through in one year. Besides, as she goes to and from home and school, the parents are kept in close touch with the work of the students. A synthetic curriculum studied on Dalton lines should spell happiness to any student.

A few other changes have been made in the system. Duncan House has its own laboratory graph, the advantage being that it is made out for a whole term. Every mistress, too, keeps a weekly appointment form in her room, and every student must enter her name at least once. Ten minutes' individual attention is thereby secured to her.

None of these modifications are very drastic or radical, but they have all justified themselves in a smoother working of the plan.

Miss Wilson is always glad to welcome anyone who may wish to see something of the work at Duncan House.

Oaklea, Buckhurst Hill, Essex.

This girls' school, of which Miss B. Gardner is Head Mistress, is conducted on general P.N.E.U. lines, but the actual scheme of its working was the outcome of several years' thought and was launched in September, 1928, after a whole term had been

given to its consideration by all the members of the staff. A course of lectures given by Dr. M. O'Brien Harris, and arranged by the New Education Fellowship, proved, Miss Gardner states, helpful and stimulating while the scheme was evolving.

The Plan. The main features of the plan now in operation may be briefly outlined. Above the Junior and Lower School there are no Forms, for a pupil has then attained the status of Citizen, a name chosen to denote a certain ability to accept responsibility and to carry out an arranged programme of work. This has been divided into stages, each stage representing approximately one term's work. Citizens attend a lower or higher stage according to proficiency, and in tutorials and study periods follow largely the Howard plan. Individual time-tables are drawn up by the Citizens on the first day of term, these have to be submitted and passed. The pupils are divided into groups of about eight of varying ages under the leadership of a mistress who acts as tutor and watches over the progress and individual needs of each member of her group. In order to encourage a spirit of responsibility for the general welfare, one hour each week—half of this from the pupils' free time—is devoted to community work, when every Citizen works for the general good. Gardening, carpentry, decoration, book-binding are some of the forms of this voluntary work.

Huyton Hill School, Huyton, near Liverpool.

Huyton Hill School was founded for boys from 5 to 14 years of age because it was felt that education has not produced generally admirable people, and that those who have become by it, or in spite of it, admirable, have been of the dutiful rather than the joyful variety. The school is not co-educational, because it is already possible in most districts for parents to find progressive schools for girls, in very few districts for boys.

The Aim. The aim is to produce men who are (a) good workers, (b) good citizens, and (c) agreeable socially.

(a) A good worker must love work. The government of the school is carried on democratically by the boy form and representatives of the other forms, the staff acting as expert advisers. A good worker must be generous of his work, so, though there are marks, the object of all is to produce a good collective total with the individual's marks regarded as his contribution. A good worker must be efficient; so he is taught observation, linking all work to life, e.g. to the shops and the seasons: the terms are called Spring, Summer and Autumn. Observation and criticism are essentials of the Selective System mentioned below. The ability to use what is observed is taught by the criticism of people and actions in books and life, and by showing boys how to file actually and mentally whatever admirable they may observe.

(b) A good citizen must be generous of his time and thought to the community. Work on the School Council teaches an intelligent interest in the working of the community and provides practice in the use of the Selective System. The necessity of this is witnessed by the percentage of public school boys on town councils.

(c) To be agreeable socially a man must be good-tempered at breakfast and on leaving the house, and return with a day's collection of interest to share, and ready to appreciate the other collection which

has been made by those at home. So good temper is taught as an art, and the boys are helped to develop an interest in those things which last after school days.

Health. A good step towards all the above is good health, and every effort is made to perfect knowledge of healthy living. P.T. is made really alive by devising little ballets to employ different sets of muscles and at the same time to teach the beauty and fun of various manual tasks. Thus, we have just completed a ballet of Shovelling.

The Selective System. The above outline refers only to the present methods and is by no means rigid. These methods are regarded merely as the best machinery at present available, and the idea is to adopt and adapt the best from the methods of others. This is the Selective System in practice and as preached to the boys. Its doctrine is briefly: 'Observe, both inside yourself and outside. Select what is admirable for the rest, ignore what affects no one, and plan to replace what is harmful.'

Kingsmoor School, Glossop, Derbyshire

This new school (Principal, G. R. Swaine), opened in May, 1927, is co-educational and has all departments from the nursery school upwards. It is established in very beautiful surroundings on the edge of the Derbyshire moors, in Glossop Hall. The number of children has now reached 75. Its aim is to provide an education at moderate cost, not only free from the inhibitive practices of orthodox schooling, but also based on such principles as will develop a positive philosophy of life which will further the spiritual evolution of the individual, and therefore of mankind in general.

The school has not existed long enough to claim success in experimental work, but in every aspect of its work and of its life it may fairly be asserted that it is achieving marked success in developing the new outlook in its children, together with real intellectual progress. In order to accomplish their aim its founders recognise that altruism must be the chief governing principle at work in the school. They have themselves undertaken to maintain the school until such time as it is self-supporting, and thereafter to return any profits to the use of the school. Several of the staff have voluntarily dispensed with salaries they could command elsewhere. Competitive methods are not employed and the spirit of co-operation and mutual help is alive in the whole school life.

Discipline. No punishments and no rewards are awarded, and it has been found that repressive measures are not required to preserve orderliness or industry, the positive methods used in securing interest, co-operation and esprit de corps have, so far, proved sufficient, and the feeling of trust and responsibility among the elder boys and girls is of itself a potent factor in the smooth running of the school.

Study. Study is carried on largely on an individual basis and from 11 years and upwards a modified form of the Dalton Plan is used. Thus far the subjects of Mathematics, Science, History, English, French and part of the Geography course have been treated in this way. A considerable amount of good reading is done, and the learning and reciting of suitable poetry is a feature of the work, every day public reciting is taken at school assemblies. Several

celebrations have been performed, notably of Blake, Tennyson, Chopin, Beethoven, Columbus, Capt. Cook, and of Armistice Day. Not only have the boys and girls made suitable models and designs in illustration, but they have written "lives," poems and songs which have been incorporated in the celebration. Handicraft and art work, Greek and country dancing and a good deal of music and dramatic work are used very freely, and this latter has been much helped by the erection of a fine stage with excellent coloured lighting facilities. Both boys and girls take a course in needlework and cookery. A sun-lamp has been installed and records are being kept of the results of treatment.

Philosophy. The whole of the school work is linked together by means of an interesting philosophy course, whose main purpose is to show the development of humanity, via the strengthening and development of spiritual values in mankind. The ethical code of Christ is its basis, but the work and teachings of great human beings of all races and times are not neglected. The school gives no sectarian religious teaching, but emphasises the fact that the principles of Christ provide the only clear way of life consistent with progress, and it seeks to develop in the children a philosophic outlook that squares with the unchanging facts of human nature and the evolution of scientific truth. It seeks to train the child to the application of self-discipline and self-control and to free his natural instincts to a wise usage in right channels.

Parc Wern School for Young Children, Swansea, South Wales.

This school, of which Miss D. Hall is Head, was founded by parents interested in modern methods and desirous of giving their children the right conditions and environment for happy and vigorous mental and physical development. It was opened in 1922 as a co-educational school for boys and girls up to the age of ten, where parents might leave their children as boarders for short or long periods. Close co-operation between the general body of parents and the conduct of the school is aimed at.

Situation. The building overlooks a river mouth and the entrance to a busy harbour, it is in a district offering endless opportunities for exploration and for gaining at first hand knowledge of docks and shipping, the seashore, bays and headlands, river courses, mountains, marshes, woods, flowers and birds. There are school gardens to experiment in, pets to care for, and a library where knowledge gained by actual experience may be supplemented.

Work. The first principle is to set free the child's impulse to create; there is a large and varied supply of raw and prepared materials to inspire him to make his own tools, toys, pictures, models, stories, poems, plays and properties, and music. That work is valued most which is an expansion of his own spirit. Though most of the work is arranged on individual lines there is a strong urge among the bigger children to work in small groups and societies, led by skilled helpers. This is valued and made use of to stimulate work, and to teach co-operation and the significance of society. Each child is a living entity in the school, and cases of retarded development or difficult temperament receive special care. A nurse matron is in charge of the children living in school, and arranges the meals.

Matlock Modern School, Matlock, Derbyshire

The ideals of the Matlock Modern School (Principal, Mrs B A Law) may be expressed as Good Health, Good Sense and Spiritual Values, and the lines followed to attain these ideals are a practical outdoor life, unlimited, and largely vegetarian, food; fresh air and sunshine, with artificial sunlight, more rational and beautiful clothing, and a broadening of the character and sympathies by camping holidays abroad, the abolition of punishment, high educational attainment, freedom of individual expression, and a progressive outlook.

Camping. The outdoor life and camping experience enabled a large party of pupils and parents to attend the New Education Fellowship Conference at Locarno last year, having secured an ideal camp at Ascona in the suburbs of Locarno. In previous years visits have been made to and camps held in France, Belgium and Holland.

Kibbo Kift. Most of the pupils are members of the Kibbo Kift Kindred which makes a strong appeal to young folk and inculcates a clean, kindly and unaffected attitude of mind. Its world-service fosters a wider outlook and better understanding of other nations. The school has a beautiful camping ground on a hillside amongst pines, bracken and heather, with glorious views of the hills and dales of Matlock. Besides the outdoor sleeping necessitated by camping, during the summer and autumn many pupils sleep on the covered terraces, and show by their rosy cheeks and active physique the benefit derived.

Artificial Sunlight. A large sun-lamp has been installed in the school, and is used under the supervision of a trained nurse. Whenever opportunity occurs actual sun-bathing is practised, and the results are proving of great benefit.

The ethical and educational value of dramatic work is fully appreciated, plays written by a member of the staff are produced and acted by the pupils.

While securing and maintaining the consistent good health of her charges by the means outlined above, the Principal is alive to the importance of meeting the requirements of modern conditions by the attainment of a high standard of education and academic success. Pupils are therefore prepared for Matriculation by a staff holding honour degrees in their several subjects.

Seager House School, Hayling Island, Hants

This school is still in its infancy, having been in existence only four terms. The aim of its Principals, the Misses May, is to build up a school where there is, very definitely, a happy homelike atmosphere in which the children may develop their own powers and at the same time receive real training in the management of their bodies, their emotions and their minds. With this end in view, the results of modern educational research are embodied in the curriculum, wherever their value has been proved. In all directions as much freedom as possible is allowed the children, and the natural advantages which the school enjoys, such as its position practically on the seashore in country surroundings, enables the freedom to be physical as well as mental. Open-air classes are a feature, and the remarkable sunshine record of Hayling allows drill-classes at least to be held out of doors even in December. The school has grown rapidly, and the aims and hopes of the Principals

seem to be justified by the appreciation shown and the co-operation given by parents.

Ocklye, Crowborough, Sussex.

A very interesting experiment is being tried by Miss Margaret E G Johnston, the Principal of this small home school. Having six girls over 12, Miss Johnston adopted a two-months-old baby for them to take care of, and she regards the rapid development in all directions since her adoption as remarkable. The baby has no special nurse, but belongs to the community, the children taking turns in helping to look after her and in doing things for her. The personality of one of the girls, aged 17, has been almost transformed. She was shy and backward, interested in nothing, and sensitive, but she became absorbed in the baby. Having learned self-confidence by being given entire charge of the child, she has improved in every way. The baby is now a year old, and has never ailed since she arrived at Ocklye.

The Caldecott Community, Caldecott House, Goff's Oak, near Cheshunt, Herts

Aims and Work. Founded as a Nursery School in St Pancras in 1911, the Caldecott Community (Hon Directors, Miss L M Rendel and Miss F M Potter) now stands in a beautiful expanse of open country near Cheshunt. Its objects are "to form a centre for educational experiment, based on non-collective teaching, for children of the working classes and to be a boarding-school for working-men's children where they may be educated in touch with rural life and occupations." The Community consists of a little company of nearly fifty boys and girls, educated on completely co-educational lines, who enjoy not only the advantages of all that is best in modern education, but also the real home life that is afforded by the comradeship of the members of the staff, including the Directors. It is easy to see that the human element, the individual study of the child, plays a very important part in the Community life, yet the encouragement of a group-spirit is equally emphasised. Among the tiny ones the Montessori Method is in use and the Dalton Plan among the older ones, while the intervening classes divide themselves into groups. Weaving, leather work, carpentry, drama provide an outlet for creative expression, the Young Farmers' Club, of which the children are most enthusiastic members, gives an excellent opportunity for open-air life and care of animals. Scholars who pass through the Community take their places in many professions and occupations. The object of their training is to give them an all-round comprehension and resourcefulness, "a sincere directness and power of simple enjoyment," which will stand them in good stead whatever their circumstances. No domestic are kept and the necessary work of daily life is shared by children and teachers alike. Children are not admitted to the Community over seven years of age. The normal child from a good working-class home is the type most favoured by the Selection Committee.

The splendid work of the Caldecott Community, which has many urgent plans for extension (such as the provision of properly equipped playing-fields, laboratory and workshop) is in need of financial support. It is "a work established upon faith," and its record of achievement most certainly justifies response to its appeal for the wherewithal to con-

tinue its work. It still has no endowment and its assured income is still £1,000 per annum short of its expenditure.

Westonbirt House, near Tetbury, Glos.

On 11th May, 1928, this school, designed for about 250 girls between the ages of 12 and 18, was opened as a "Girls' Stowe," with Mrs. Houson Crauford as Head Mistress. The founder is Rev. P. E. Warrington, the founder of Stowe, who has already started a number of well-known colleges. The aim of the governing body is not a conventional high school education, which they think too closely modelled on boys' curriculum and too academic in outlook. As many more women marry and become the mothers of the next generation, than become professional women, the Governors consider that girls' education should be based on their own needs, and that aesthetic and domestic, as well as practical and outdoor subjects, have been unduly neglected in the education of the average girl. They believe also that she should be given more real freedom, and more scope for initiative and leadership.

Mrs. Houson Crauford, who is chief of the Scottish Girl Guides, has never been a Head Mistress before. But she has had a very wide experience of work among girls in all classes of life. She has practical experience as a wife and mother to bring to her new enterprise, and has marked organising ability. She comes to this work unfettered by stereotyped views or ideas, and will keep in close personal touch with the girls outside the class-rooms. These will be under the care of a vice-principal. Mrs. Crauford believes that an education which will fit for the best kind of country life and pursuits, in homelike surroundings, will give them a wider outlook and a desire to be of social service. Therefore sports and games will be specially fostered.

Brickwall School, Northam, Sussex.

On its fourth birthday the seaside school at Bexhill moved to this historic mansion and became Brickwall School, Northam. Readers of *Gloriana*, by Rudyard Kipling, will remember Brickwall, where Elizabeth danced and debated the fate of England and Spain. The mansion retains its panels and old oak flooring, its cordons leather, twisted chimneys and famous ceilings, also its heirlooms and its deer park, rookery and squirrels. But since Christmas its out-buildings have been transformed into cloakrooms, gymnasium, studio and craft-room, its stables are full of ponies, and the loose boxes are used by the girls for their pets.

At Bexhill the girls had discovered a need for some kind of chapel. They put it to me like this: "We have a room for cooking and one for eating, one for mathematics and one for language. There is a place for everything but thinking." Temporarily provision was found, and the tradition of a "Quiet Room" established. The most "unlikely" children join with the naturally earnest and devout in using the room. It has never been misused, and the notes, poems, and quotations one sees on the table testify to the serious thinking done there. Here at Northam the best room in the house—a low panelled one—is reserved for "Quiet Room."

In school organisation we have developed something more intimate and simple than the House System—more suited to our numbers and nearer akin to the family. Baden Powell's genius has given us

the educational principle of patrols—small groups, managed by girls. The leaders form an executive who meet the staff at weekly Courts of Honour, where, on behalf of the school, they bring forward suggestions. At subsequent Patrol meetings they pass on all decisions to their Patrols, who are responsible to see them carried out.

The only awards and penalties used are marked, not individually, but to a Patrol. Honours are awarded for especially faithful and valuable service or for an exceptionally fine effort in work of any kind.

In sport it is obvious that one puts forward an immensely greater effort on behalf of one's team than one would ever do for personal glory. Similarly girls will attack their weak subject with determination, will persevere with a long piece of mechanical work, will study steadily without any waste of time, because a Patrol will stand or fall by the result of this self discipline.

Recently it was necessary to suspend a small girl temporarily from membership in a Patrol. The result was devastating. She won honours which interested nobody. Her score was unrecorded because it did not affect others. By ceasing to be of service she ceased to count.

The girls have evolved distinct ideas about the place of the more slow-witted members of the community. It is a keen point of honour to care more about success in making such companions successful, even than about one's Patrol score.

Bembridge School, Isle of Wight.

The examples of woodcuts in this number of the magazine are done by boys of Bembridge School, Bembridge, as visitors to it know, is a school where arts and crafts are used as instruments of spiritual and intellectual education, and this without sacrificing any of the academic work of the school.

Some remarkable work has been done in many departments. So far as woodcuts are concerned, there have generally been a few boys who have attained great proficiency in this art. A little time ago the school issued a handsome volume giving reproductions of 50 woodcuts done by the boys. In all cases the woodcuts have been designed as well as cut by the boys. They are then printed by the boys on their own press.

In his introduction to *Woodcuts*,* the book referred to, the Warden of the school (Mr. J. Howard Whitehouse) dealt with the value of this art in the training of boys.

The Farmhouse School, Mayortorne Manor, Wendover, Bucks.

The Farmhouse School is the outcome of a very long teaching experience which has seemed to indicate that a movement away from the ordinary type of school was called for. And this, both on educational and social grounds. The usual school curriculum which consists of intellectual studies, hand-work and games only does not cover the whole ground of human activity and interest. There is a whole sphere of life which remains unexplored by the ordinary school child. And yet it is one which bulks large in the life of the greater world. It is the sphere of practical service and action. To train

* University Press, Cambridge

children in this domain, farm work of the lighter kinds, dairy work, milking, the care of poultry, Angora rabbits, etc., form an integral part of the daily life of the children, thus making them handy, alert, punctual and responsible. Further, the actual mental interest which is stimulated through these employments is no small aid to purely intellectual progress. From a social point of view the farm-

work is a constant object lesson in the life and needs of the world at large. To have a share, however minute, in one of the greatest and most important industries of humanity is an antidote to many of the evils accompanying the different standards of education of different classes. It makes work dignified, it quickens sympathy with the humble toiler, it negatives the egotism of ignorant wealth.

Boarding Schools of the Society of Friends

Sibford.—For twenty years the Society of Friends has been experimenting at Sibford, near Banbury, in the education of the practical boy or girl. The course is for four years, but a fifth year is under consideration. Thus the school is already doing the kind of work which the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education proposes for the "Modern School."

Sibford is a co-educational boarding-school for 100 boys and girls; there is some differentiation in curriculum between the sexes, but boys take some cookery and needlework and girls some woodwork. The craft work is comprehensive, and the art has a bias towards decorative design. The school is in the country, and though most pupils come from the big cities, gardening, practical geography and regional survey are taught. If the general elementary science in the laboratory is included, quite half the school time is given to practical work. In the class-room the emphasis is on English, History and practical Mathematics. A year's study of Esperanto is followed by French, the principal aim being to give a fuller appreciation of language as an instrument of thought and human intercourse. Sibford has found a distinct advantage in being free from external examinations, and this policy is likely to be pursued until a really suitable external examination is organized.

Ackworth.—Another attempt is being made on the boys' side at Ackworth, near Pontefract, Yorkshire. The handicraft work is on similar lines to that of the boys at Sibford; but in this case the experiment is being made in a department or "side" of an ordinary Secondary School.

The Friends' School at Saffron Walden (Essex), co-educational, has similarly started a special course for the practical girl and is planning one for boys.

Saffron Walden.—Saffron Walden has for three or four years been experimenting on the lines of the Dalton Plan from the Upper Third Form upwards. This Upper School is divided into seven stages, and a boy or girl may be in different stages in different subjects, or may be working on an individual timetable. There are three types of class periods: teaching lessons, tutorials (where all the class are working on the same subject), and free study periods. Saffron Walden has also done good work in regional survey.

Great Ayton.—The Friends' School, Great Ayton, near Middlesbrough (co-educational) has during the last few years developed an agricultural side for boys who expect to be farmers. Agricultural science takes the place of French in their curriculum; and the Oxford Delegacy has allowed the school a special School Certificate Examination without any foreign language.

Sidcot.—Sidcot School, Winscombe, Somerset, also co-educational, has a well developed Lodge of the Order of Woodcraft Chivalry.

Friends' boarding-schools have for long been known for their leisure time pursuits, in which boys and girls follow their individual bent, express themselves and develop individuality. A recent interesting example of this is furnished by Bootham School, York (boys), where a number of the boys have for a year or more been engaged on holiday afternoons on extensive excavations of Roman remains at Castle Howard, where valuable finds have been made. Prefectships, School or Form Councils, the organization of games and various School Societies, give large scope for training in administration and self direction. At Bootham (boys), The Mount, York (girls), and Leighton Park, Reading (boys), the week following external examinations in July has for some years been given to special study of civics: local survey, local government, art in every-day life, and similar courses, as a training for citizen service. Several schools also organize camps during the summer holidays, where boys or girls share camp life with lads or girls from the neighbouring city. Some schools have active Junior Branches of the League of Nations Union, among which Sibford may be specially mentioned.

A recent development in the method of religious teaching may also be of interest. In some places the boys and (or) girls in the Sixth Form are taken in the teachers' study, and the lesson takes the form of a discussion group. In this freer more personal atmosphere boys and girls are more ready to discuss problems of Christian ethics and even such subjects as the meaning of prayer and the nature of God. A further experiment is being tried at Sidcot, where attendance at the Friends' meeting for worship held on a week-day morning has been made optional for the older boys and girls.

Educational Research

An Experiment at Frensham Heights

By J. H. Burns, B Sc. (Hons.)

It was the custom twenty or thirty years ago for educationalists to solve most of their problems by intuition. Provided one was intuitive one could work wonders. Agreed one required a number of other qualities like sincerity, enthusiasm, knowledge and personality, but above all the great requisite was intuition. There was and there still is a clash between the intuitive and the scientific educationalists. It is a pity, a great pity, because in both camps one finds splendid keen apostles of a new era in education. It is perhaps the work of those who belong to both camps to attempt to bridge the gulf between them. In any case one must try to sink personalities for the good of the cause. Intuition is a fine quality but it is capable of terrible errors. Similarly over systematising, over reduction of everything to scientific measurement, can lead to a ghastly colourless efficiency. It is all so much a question of balance.

At present, however, the position in England would seem to indicate a decided prejudice in favour of intuition. The mere word, experiment, still tends to make us shudder and we often cannot be bothered to take any interest. Our conservatism is so strong that it blinds us to the fact that our progress is the effect of nothing but experiments. We have tried this and we have tried that until at last we have hit upon the right path—the path to a truer, more enlightened education. Thus the experiment which I am about to describe may prove a failure or it may not. But at least it will have pointed out a path.

The school in which this experiment is being carried out is Frensham Heights, Rowledge, near Farnham, Surrey, and the method of education in vogue at the school more or less Dalton. It is co-educational and boarding and each child's

time-table as divided up into free and set periods. In the free or optional periods the child works at the subjects it chooses; in the set periods the child works at definite set subjects. Set times, however, very often become optional, so that the scheme is by no means rigid.

The first step in the experiment was the ensuring of a detailed and accurate record of each child's time-table. Bed times, music lessons and practices, sunlight treatment, dancing, games, drill and all the various crafts were duly entered along with the times of academic work so that it was possible to say more or less exactly what each child was doing at every moment of the day. This does not, of course, mean that the children are watched all day. The children have real freedom to work out their assignments in consultation with their advisers. The next step was the keeping of graphs to record the child's daily work in each of its subjects. Furthermore as each peak or assignment of a subject was finished the dates of completion were entered up on the graphs and upon specially printed peak cards. At the same time cards were drawn up and printed upon which could be recorded details of age, family, appearance, temperament, order of liking of lessons, games, vocation, previous schools, hobbies, interests, results of various kinds of intelligence tests, and general remarks of subject teachers and testing psychologist. This was carried out—as still being carried out—for each child. All this is correlated with medical inspection which gives full particulars of the child's physical growth. It was thought that one could not know too much. And so always more and more information. Thus concluded the first stage of the experiment—the collection of data.

Now came the problem of what to do with all this material. How to approach it—how to reduce the chaos to some kind of order—that was the question. Here was a rather unwieldy mass of information which had by some process to be tabulated, classified and in some way rendered coherent and useful. Obviously some kind of statistical analysis and correlation of it all was urgently needed. This was, in due course, begun. But then as one sorted it out so one realised that even more information was desirable. Estimates of the time required for the mastery of each subject's assignments or peaks were asked for and made by the various subject teachers and these estimates incorporated in the final analysis. And now a further piece of work is to be conducted as soon as possible in which each child is to have achievement tests in all subjects. Thus the second stage of the experiment—the analysis of the data—involved the collection of even more information.

So far, then, so good. The experiment is by no means finished but already quite positive results have been obtained. Let me take a few examples at random. It was noticed that a certain child was getting very behindhand in her work. She became worried at first and then slack and indifferent. Analysis of her timetable showed that the academic time available for her to complete her work was inadequate by comparison with the time estimated. Again, her intelligence quotient was not very high. She could not be expected to do the work as fast as others. A correction was needed and was applied. The child is now doing much better.

Another example. But perhaps I had better explain what is an intelligence quotient or I.Q. first of all. After years and years of experimentation psychologists have discovered a more or less satisfactory scale of tests whereby a child's intelligence may be measured as soon as it enters school. We all know, of course, that just as people differ in the colour of their eyes so do they differ in

their intelligences. Some children are more brilliant than others and according to their relative brilliances or intelligences so can they work at differing speeds. Part of the above experiment, therefore, consisted of the testing of each child with various kinds of intelligence tests. It was thought that only in this way could one possess a reliable index of each child's potential ability. The tests were of different kinds, some verbal, some performance, some individual and some group. No stone was left unturned.

And now let me return to my second example. A certain child was being steadily coached for an examination but complaints had been made that she was not doing very well. It was thought possible that certain temperamental qualities were preventing her from doing her best. The testing psychologist was called in to apply the usual tests and the first individual test recorded an I.Q. of 97, i.e. slightly below normal. The standardised group tests of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology were then applied and again the girl did badly. Altogether, therefore, the girl was discovered not to have the required intelligence to enable her to pass academic examinations. It was strongly recommended that she should discontinue her examination work.

One could go on to give numerous other examples of the use which has been made of all the information collected and analysed. Undoubtedly the experiment cannot prove a total failure, but it is as yet too early to speak of it as a total success. It will require at least another two years to complete and pronounce final judgment. Meanwhile very big problems are involved. A few of these may be mentioned now. First and foremost there is the whole question of the best method of education. Secondly, and interlinked with the first, there is the question of vocational guidance. Thirdly there is the question of the right and correct amount of psychology which can at present be applied to the advancement of truer and better ideals. One cannot do

this work hurriedly and for the moment one cannot say what precise degree of usefulness it will serve in the end. It is an experiment and we are all as yet still groping in the dark. Let us have patience.

Two important points. First, too much emphasis cannot be laid upon the necessity and difficulty of a wise interpretation and application of the information we have collected and analysed. It is no mean task to view all the figures and particulars in their proper perspective. And this brings me to my second point, namely, the true understanding of the child. Careful observation of each child, an understanding,

both intuitional and scientific, of his or her difficulties, emotional and intellectual, and a sympathetic approach to and dealing with these difficulties is the greatest task of a real education. It is not sufficient just to test a child and record information. One must be prepared to work and play with the child as well for it is only in this way that he or she can be fully understood. A considerable amount of self-effacement is involved working hand in hand with a sensible tolerant affection. Children, it is true, are a nuisance at times. But more often they are a delight.

[*It is hoped to make a more detailed report in a later issue.*]

The English Public Schools

By H. C. Dent

"None for himself, but all, all for the school!"

—From a Public School Song

THERE are few more lasting or more deep-rooted loyalties than that of an Englishman towards the school at which he was educated. Though he may never have distinguished himself there, though his school-days may have been unhappy, he will to the end of his life think fondly and proudly of his *Alma Mater*, talk endlessly and with enthusiasm of its past, its present and its future, be elated when it is successful, be perturbed if the faintest shadow fleets across its fair name and reputation. He will regard all who have gathered within its walls as his brothers. And, truest and best sign of loyalty, he will hold himself bound all his days by the ideals of that school.

A tradition of loyalty such as this is not bred in one generation; it takes centuries to develop. It might be possible to trace this of ours from pre-Conquest days, but we shall be on perfectly safe ground if we go back at least to 1382, when William of Wykeham founded at Winchester a school for seventy poor scholars, a school the leading characteristic of which was to be a strong corporate

life. All in it were to feel themselves united by a sense of community, in work, in play, in duties. The ideal was attractive; its influence spread, and it was not long before other schools were established in which it was cherished. It has persisted, until now for a long time it has been an essential and inalienable constituent of our idea of a school.

The schools in which this tradition was born and grew were all *public* schools, that is, their gates were open to all who desired entry and could prove fitness for education (it may be noted that often poverty was one of the conditions). They were almost all boarding schools. Obviously, a strong corporate life, the sense of belonging to a community to which one owed loyalty and service, was more easily realisable in a boarding than a day school, though this was not the only reason for an organisation that has remained peculiarly English. Alongside this tradition others arose; William of Wykeham considered the formation of character the primary duty of the school—everyone knows his famous motto,

ST CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL, LETCHWORTH



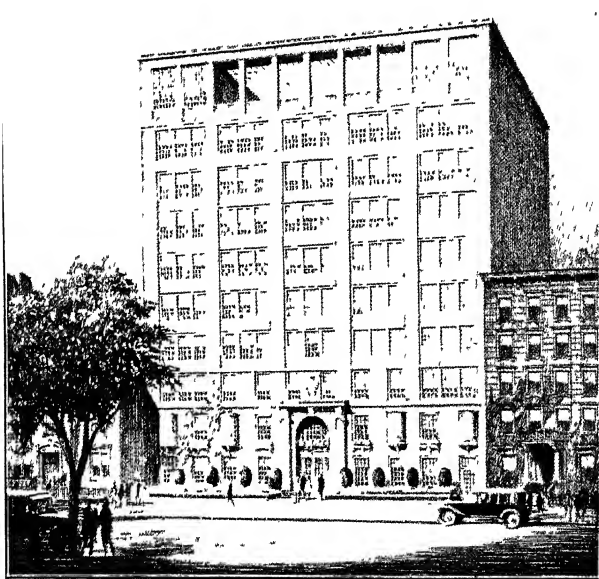
Arundale House from the Playing Fields



Montessori Class



THE GARDEN SCHOOL
LANE END, NEAR HIGH WYCOMBE, BUCKS



THE NEW DALTON SCHOOL BUILDING

(108-114 East 89th Street, New York City) The new school, which will be ready in September, will house four school units, Primary, Elementary, Junior and Senior High School. The windows are of quartz glass, permitting a maximum quantity of ultra violet rays to enter. A special feature will be a babies' nursery conducted as an experiment by the High School girls, whose Social and Domestic Science will centre on four babies, of varying ages, under the direction of a trained nurse.

Manners makyth Man—and he gave to the older boys a share in the ruling of the school (and thus an interest in its reputation) through his prefect system. The school was closely connected from the start with Oxford University; its scholars were to pass on to New College. These traditions have all endured.

Several of these medieval foundations, enriched by endowments and upheld by the fame of their pupils, have preserved a continuous reputation to this day. Among these are Eton, Harrow, Winchester, Westminster, Charterhouse, Rugby and Shrewsbury, and they may be considered the framework on which the public school system and tradition have been built.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the schools and universities of England sank into a truly terrible state of inefficiency. Many schools perished altogether, while in those which survived laziness, corruption, vice and cruelty were rampant. Even so late as one hundred years ago "Bad feeding, bad supervision and resultant bullying and immorality were truly alleged against them. Their curriculum was confined to a selection of Greek and Latin authors, chosen without intelligence and taught without conviction." Some of the criticisms of the public schools of to-day, it is to be feared, are based on a misunderstood knowledge of their condition a century ago. In 1828 Thomas Arnold was appointed to Rugby, and during his fourteen years' headmastership there, a period happily concurrent with a newly awakened desire for public school education, he revolutionised the whole state of affairs. "Arnold of Rugby," says Dr. Norwood, "is not a myth. At the right moment he showed what could be made of the boarding school. He attracted to it a new class, the sons of that upper middle class which was beginning to enter public life. . . . He made religion a living force. . . . He widened the curriculum and he taught in a living way. He created a school whose influence was rapidly felt in all directions."

And not least in the rise of other schools which copied his ideals and methods. Old grammar schools, such as Uppingham, Repton, Sherborne, Tonbridge and Sedbergh, were revived; new foundations, such as Cheltenham, Marlborough, Wellington, Clifton, Radley, Lancing and Malvern, sprang up. In all these the public school tradition, the ideals of William of Wykeham as re-interpreted by Arnold of Rugby, were maintained. The result was that during the second half of the nineteenth century the public school system (welded into a unity by the formation in 1869 of the Headmasters' Conference) was beyond all question the dominant factor in English education. There were in fact no competitors; the other secondary schools were unorganised, lacking in prestige, and frequently scandalously inefficient. Upon the public schools as a body, therefore, devolved the mighty task of providing the nation's future rulers and chiefs in all departments of state, religion and thought. They rose to the task; of scholars they produced not a few; of men of initiative, fitted to rule and to command, there issued an endless stream. The material was good, and so long as that material was not markedly different from the average they wrought it soundly. It is said that they produced a type; they were bound to. Any great system that is successful in supplying a demand and that has no competitors is certain to rely upon standardisation. And it must be admitted that up to a point standardisation is by no means harmful; we most of us tend to approximate to the average.

A far more serious criticism is that the system ignored all without its pale. The rest of mankind was of a different and lower caste. So it came about that the tremendous development of elementary and secondary educational facilities for the sons and daughters of the poorer classes which signalised the years between, roughly, 1860 and 1914, was not fostered by the public schools (as it ought to have been), but rather proceeded on its way in spite of them, for not only did the

public schools and the older universities not take an active part in this development, but they evinced no desire to enter into friendly relations with it. They remained coldly aloof, with the result that there is even as yet no national system of education in England. There is a public school education for those who can afford it; for those who cannot, there are the elementary schools and a few places for the fortunate in the State secondary schools.

No more did the public schools demonstrate any great interest in the world-wide revolution in educational theory which gathered force towards the end of the nineteenth century. In time they were affected by it; no type of school has been able to ignore or escape its effects. Everywhere school life to-day is utterly different from and far happier than school life thirty, twenty, even ten years ago. But tradition ruled them with almost irresistible power, and they were the last to move before the onrush of new ideas. The war hastened the change. After the war there was an overwhelming demand for secondary education of all kinds; the public schools, like all others, became crowded, and not by any means with the same class of boys. Fresh demands were made on the public schools, and they are now shaping themselves to meet these demands, while at the same time clinging stoutly to all that is good in the old traditions. Their method is typically English; in England we do a thing, and only then talk about it. We alter officially only when the unofficial alterations that have been long proceeding compel us to do so. We effect a reform when the reform has already effected itself.

Before writing this article I visited several public schools and had correspondence from others. I chose schools that represented (a) the older foundations, (b) the nineteenth century foundations, and (c) foundations of to-day. (In this last connection it must be remembered that the Headmasters' Conference, which decides whether a school is a public school or not, has recently admitted many new

members, both from newly founded schools and from secondary schools which have claimed the status of a public school.) I found everywhere that spirit of freedom which is the keynote of the modern educational movement. So far as material freedom can be given, it is easy for the public schools to give it; they have as a rule broad playing fields, spacious grounds, abundance of indoor room, magnificent libraries, money and facilities for the encouragement of all organised and unorganised hobbies and spare time occupations. They are making the most of these advantages. Boys can follow their own bents to an extent unknown a few years ago. Games and athletics claim devotion in plenty (and quite rightly too, for games are a necessity for a growing boy, and the organised games of the public schools have practically eliminated sexual immorality), but games are not everything in the public school of to-day.

The curriculum of the public schools is dominated at both ends; to enter a public school a boy must pass the Common Entrance Examination, and at most he must take at least the First School Certificate. (There are still a few schools which hold out against any sort of government supervision, and therefore can be free of this second restriction.) It is further controlled by the demands of the older universities. Within these limits every attempt is being made to widen it so as to provide opportunity for individual needs. Carpentry, metalwork, engineering and pottery rooms are to be found, and chemistry, physics and biology laboratories. Mathematics, for so long despised, is granted its due place. The teaching of modern languages, of history and geography is rising to a position of first importance. Methods are developing along modern lines. In a school said to stand "rather as a perfecter of the older methods," in French the boys:—

- (a) Talk the language as far as possible.
- (b) Are taught to aim at perfect pronunciation.
- (c) Use up-to-date text-books

- (d) Are encouraged to self-expression by as much free composition as possible.
- (e) Do a great deal of dramatising and acting texts.

In the same school "Art is run on modern lines, boys following their bent in very unorthodox fashion. Results startlingly successful." The treatment of art is indeed one of the most noticeable features in the public schools; I did not see any that could be called old-fashioned or repressive of individuality. The same remark applies to music, both instrumental and vocal. A boy spending his Sunday afternoon before a gramophone and a pile of records is but one happy result; twenty years ago he would have been considered a crank. Natural history societies, literary, debating, scientific, wireless clubs are common, and are run co-operatively by boys and staff. The relations between teachers and taught are happy; the old feeling of antagonism seems almost completely to have disappeared.

Much more could be said to show how the public schools, and their nurseries,

the preparatory schools, are responding to the call of modern educational theory. In the curriculum lies the gravest fault, and undoubtedly the trouble here lies in the examinations, and particularly in the Common Entrance Examination, which cramps the intellect and distorts the views of the boy before he gets to his public school. Discipline is a problem that has largely disappeared in the public schools, thanks to the changed relations between masters and boys. The feeding and health arrangements are excellent.

Girls' public schools are a much more recent development, and are less hampered by tradition. "Every possible chance is given for the unusual girl," a Head Mistress told me. "We do not produce a type, for tolerance is the mark of the modern school." Particularly is this the case with religion; all creeds and beliefs meet on an equality and respect and learn from each other. The girls' public school, so this Head Mistress claimed, develops broadness of outlook, a strong corporate feeling and a deep sense of the duty and privilege of service.

"Transfer of Training" and "Transference"*

By T. H. Pear, J. N. Langdon and Edna M. Yates

(From the Department of Psychology, University of Manchester)

It is hardly necessary to emphasize the interest and importance to education of the problem of transfer of training. It has been recently stated, in *Educational Psychology*,† by Mr. Charles Fox, whose views are transmitted vividly and accurately in *Proper Studies*‡ by Mr. Aldous Huxley.

The problem is perhaps most tersely stated by one of its most famous students, Professor Edward L. Thorndike:

"How far does the training of any mental function improve other mental functions?"

Now from the earliest times, schoolmasters have confidently asserted that such improvement occurs to a considerable extent. This opinion is supported by authoritative statements from the time of Plato to the present day.

That the conclusive proof or disproof of this proposition would be of great consequence to educational theory and practice is obvious from a review of recent educational history. It was to the belief in transfer of training that the defenders appealed when classical education was attacked. It was stated that even though a knowledge of Latin might be of no obvious utility, yet in acquiring this knowledge the mind was subjected to a discipline which rendered it fitter to

* Paper read before the British Psychological Society on 11th February, 1928.

† London, 1927

‡ London, 1927, pp 126-130.

deal with other problems. Still more recently, the demand for a purely vocational education would lose much of its force if it were really certain that transfer occurred to any great extent.

The problem clearly falls within the province of psychology. Its history shows that the positive answer to a question such as Thorndike's enjoyed considerable popularity so long as "faculty" psychology was in vogue. In this system the mind was conceived as being composed of a few great "faculties" such as the Reason, the Memory, or the Imagination. So naturally, practice in memorising any kind of material was believed to be favourable to memory in general. But with the fall of the faculties, and largely owing to its chief cause, inquiry by experiment, the position of formal discipline has changed.

Yet a survey of experimental work upon "transfer" reveals diverse results.* Some investigators claim to have produced decisive results in its favour, others find no evidence of its occurrence, whilst the results of many experiments are inconclusive.

Professor G. H. Thomson concludes reasonably that "transfer is nothing like as easy to detect as it ought to be were it occurring on as wholesale a scale as once was believed."† And yet, despite this negative evidence, there is no doubt that the public still believes in a widespread transfer. This is apparent everywhere, in casual conversation and in the newspapers. One often sees in advertisements the claim that a certain system "trains the mind." What is this but an assertion of wholesale mental transfer?

There is thus a discrepancy between the belief justified by results of experiment and that shared popularly. This, in most cases, may be due to the simple fact that few of the general public are professional psychologists. But there is another possibility, that the same name, "transfer," is being applied to different

classes of facts. It is therefore justifiable to examine the current use of the word.

The believers in transfer have suggested that the meagre transfer found in experimental training is due to the (alleged) artificial nature of laboratory conditions, and to the absence of ordinary incentives. This argument doubtless contains some truth. Yet whilst recognising its force, one cannot believe that the supposed artificiality and lack of incentive accounts entirely for the discrepant conclusions. For Thorndike recently carried out an experiment of gigantic scope. His subjects were a whole school population, over eight thousand, and their activities the normal work of the school year. The results were no more encouraging to the believers in transfer.‡ We may therefore seek another explanation for the discrepancy between experimental results and popular belief.

In a recent experimental investigation in the psychological laboratory of the University of Manchester,§ which examined the question of possible transfer of training in muscular dexterity, the incentives of the learners were financially controlled. Possibly for the first time in such experiments, the learners were actually paid, and highly paid, to "transfer." Yet they failed to do so. One of the strongholds of some supporters of "formal" training is therefore threatened. It can no longer be asserted that experimental work in this field, *ipso facto*, is so far removed from life as to be invalid.

To return to Thorndike. His view is that improvement of one mental function, as the result of training in another, undoubtedly occurs, and does so by means of identical elements in the two functions. Let us therefore try to discover in what

† *Journal of Educ. Psychology*, 1924.

§ Langdon and Yates "Transfer of Training in Manual Dexterity," *Memoirs of Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society*, vol. 72, 1928, "An Experimental Investigation into Transfer of Training in Skilled Performances," *British Journal of Psychology*, April, 1928. (This investigation was made possible by a grant from the Industrial Fatigue Research Board and by the Lewis Scholarship in Applied Psychology)

* E. L. Thorndike *Educational Psychology*, vol. 2, p. 417.

† *Instinct, Intelligence and Character*, p. 141

kinds of mental fact these identical elements can exist.

Thorndike observes that although they are usually bonds between concrete particular responses, some of these "particularised bonds" have widespread efficacy. A child, for example, forms the concept of "roundness" in connection with balls. It is then transferred to oranges, apples, etc. This transfer seems to be intimately connected with intelligence. In fact it has been maintained that intelligence essentially manifests itself in such operations. Strasheim in his work on intelligence,* for example, attempted . . . "to ascertain how much and in what manner the wisdom gained in the earlier situations was utilised in the later ones."

Germane to this is Kohler's experiment.† A hen was taught to choose the brighter of two greys, thus obtaining food. The interesting fact is that the hen chose the brighter grey even when, in a previous exposure, the correct grey to choose had been the one which was now the duller. It has been argued from this that when insight is gained into a situation as a whole, the ability acquired in these particular circumstances may be transferred to others.

If this is to be called "transfer," then its widespread existence cannot be questioned. Behaviour of the type quoted above appears to be one of the most fundamental attributes of mind. For the concept to be of any service, it seems then that the use of the term "transfer" should be modified.

Although psychology seems to warrant the extension of the term "transfer" to include the above instances, a study of the experimental literature reveals the existence, for practical purposes, of a narrower concept. Experimental work has usually been directed towards the investigation of transfer between two abilities which, from introspection and observation alone, we might expect to be united in a "group factor."

Now the treatment of experimental results by a method elaborated by Professor C. Spearman‡ discovers very few such group factors. Perhaps this may explain the frequent negative and indecisive results from experiments on transfer. If this supposition, that transfer occurs by way of group factors, be justified, it would explain the popular belief in its widespread existence.

For the less exuberant and more informed of our sermons, speech-day orations and newspaper editorials imply the belief that transfer is in terms of ideals and general mental attitudes. And it is popularly believed that in subjection to the influence of a school or college, in participation in team games, something of value is gained which can manifest itself in a wider environment.

This gain appears to be the formation of a sentiment or sentiments. If we adopt Professor William McDougall's concept of the sentiment as a system of emotional tendencies grouped about the idea of an object,§ we may suggest that it, on the affective side, is analogous to the group factor on the cognitive side of the mind. And though cognition, according to Spearman, is poor in group factors, affection is certainly rich in sentiments. So there are reasons for supposing that transfer, in its more general sense, may be explained by reference to the sentiments.

It will be remembered that sentiments may be formed about three varieties of object, (a) concrete particular, (b) concrete general, (c) abstract. Progressive growth from (a) to (c) may be illustrated in a single example. The child, taught not to pull his own kitten's tail, learns not to pull other kittens' tails. Gradually, under the influence of education, he develops the "abstract sentiment" of kindness to animals. It seems, then, that transfer occurs in this growth of complexity of the sentiment.

To take another example, an "abstract sentiment" for clearness of thought may

* Cf. C. Spearman, *The Abilities of Man* 1927

† Cf. K. Koffka *Psychological Bulletin*, Oct. 1922.

‡ *The Abilities of Man* London, 1927.

§ *Introduction to Social Psychology*, p. 122.

be an identical element in any operation in which the methods of science are applied. It is transfer of this nature which seems to be undisputed.

This view, that transfer occurs by way of abstract sentiment, is, of course, not new. In an experiment with school children, Squire*† found that emphasis upon neatness merely in arithmetic papers improved these papers. There was however complete absence of improvement in neatness in the spelling and language papers.

Supplementing this experiment, Ruediger*† emphasized neatness in one subject, accompanied by talks upon neatness in general. The neatness of written papers improved generally.

There remain the interesting cases in which such transfer does not occur. For example, as Bernard Hart‡ and Trotter§ have pointed out, men distinguished by unprejudiced thinking in a specific branch of knowledge, may nevertheless—particularly concerning politics or religion—accept the most contradictory propositions.** Here, then, is some dissociation in the formation of the sentiment.†† These examples remind us first that no sharp line can be drawn between normal and abnormal, and secondly, of an important problem, familiar enough in writings upon psycho-analysis, but seldom or never raised in discussions of transfer.

If the view be correct that transfer occurs through the agency of sentiments which are widened to embrace different objects, the genesis of the sentiments naturally becomes the problem.

Sentiments are most commonly formed about persons. One cannot therefore

decline to inquire into personal relationships and their effects upon the learner. Here we meet the psycho-analyst's concept of "transference." Though no elaboration of this subject can be attempted here,‡‡ evidently it is just this personal relationship, positive or negative, which often accounts for the development and extension of any sentiment. And in the instances of relative dissociation mentioned before, the hypothesis of transference offers an explanation of the failure of an abstract sentiment to function in all circumstances.

Now it seems probable that when, for instance, a student of science acquires a sentiment for the discovery of scientific truth in widely different spheres, the "transfer" may be due to the dominating power of some human model or teacher. If this be so, some of the most striking transfers, in just those fields where they are claimed, viz., in schools, universities, the Army and Navy, may be caused by "transference."

If the above analysis be correct, then for practical purposes the problem of transfer may be divided into two parts:

- (a) Transfer as the result of exercise of any specific function, and, in the absence of abstract sentiments, due merely to the exercise of that function.
- (b) Transfer as the result of the development of an abstract sentiment, the particular function trained being merely the means by which the sentiment may be exercised.

In view of the experimental evidence it seems improbable that (a) is common or occurs to any great extent. On the other hand it seems that transfer of type (b), whether positive or negative, is an established fact.

*† Cf. W. H. Heck *Mental Discipline*, 1912

‡ *The Psychology of Insanity*

§ *Instincts of the Herd in Peace and War*

** Cf. Aldous Huxley, *op. cit.*, pp. 241-3

†† Cf. T. H. Pear "The Relation of Complex and Sentiment" *British Journal of Psychology*, 1922, xiii, pp. 130-140

‡‡ A fuller discussion is given in T. H. Pear's *Fitness for Work*, London, 1928, pp. 89-90 and 79-100 (in press)

Notes on a Few State Secondary Schools

The County Secondary School for Girls, Streatham, Whelan Road, Mitcham Lane, London, S W 17.

This school (Head Mistress, Miss M. Davies, M.A., Cantab.), finely housed in an open part of London, is especially interesting as the school where Miss R. Bassett put the Dalton Plan to trial in this country. The system she evolved is the Dalton Plan much modified. Miss Bassett began with free study all and every day, she then tried, successively, free study in the morning and lesson periods in the afternoon, lesson periods in the morning and free study in the afternoon, and, finally, dividing the day into eight periods of 85 to 40 minutes each, five in the morning and three in the afternoon. Of these, three morning periods were for free study. This system is in operation still. The three afternoon periods are all teaching periods, Miss Bassett having satisfied herself that in the afternoon children are more easily tired and are thus put to too much strain if left to study by themselves without guidance. Each girl may spend only so many units of time (85 to 40 minutes) per week on each subject, whether at home or at school. If therefore she spends all her units on any subject at school, she does no home work on that subject.

Each mistress stays in her room, and pupils from all the Forms she teaches may go to work and to use the subject library there, when she is not actually teaching, a guiding. Each girl has a syllabus of work to be done each month in each subject. Since wrong or bad work done over a month is far more difficult to rectify, and therefore much more strain on the pupil, than similar work done over a week only, these syllabuses are divided into weekly assignments. The number of study periods varies very considerably, so that provision is made for each girl to work at her own pace. In each year there are 100 to 110 girls in each Form. In the mind of each mistress these are graded into four divisions according to their capacity in her subject. All four divisions cover the same ground in each subject, but this is simplified and made less detailed for the slower divisions. Singing, cookery, gymnastics, scripture, and art are not Daltonized. Miss Davies tried Daltonizing art, but found that it was more satisfactory to have two set lesson periods weekly. Chemistry is completely Daltonized from the Fourth Form up. In the cookery classes there is no demonstration by the mistress, and the girls provide their own materials and may make what they like.

The hall is used as a library by the Fifths and Sixths. Work done there must be done silently and singly, and not more than two girls may sit at one side of a table. The school buildings are well planned and well equipped, though not with the newest type of furniture. What struck the visitor was the darkness of the large hall. Whether from motives of economy or not, not sufficient light was turned on for the girls seated there to work without eye strain, and in at least one classroom the conditions were the same. Yet it must be confessed that none seemed to feel at a disadvantage, nor was there

any apparent evidence of strain on the studious faces. Miss Davies is willing to let visitors see over the school, but they are requested not to speak to the mistresses during teaching periods, as this discourages the girls from coming up with their work, and prevents other visitors from seeing the plan in operation. There is on file in the New Education Fellowship Offices a copy of one of the school's recent English assignments, any visitor may see this.

The Howard County Secondary School, Lower Clapton Road, Clapton, London, E 5

After eight years of individual time-tables, the Howard Plan in operation in this school, where Miss Ruth M. Fletcher has succeeded Dr M. O'Brien Harris as Head Mistress, shows clearly defined results and further possibilities. In an ordinary Middle School Form of about thirty pupils there may be an age range of three or four years in time, and an intelligence age range even greater. With a common time-table for the Form, a small group of pupils will in most subjects be held back, while another small group will be overpressed. Between these extremes each pupil will have one or more subjects in which the pace is too fast or too slow. The total energy lost is considerable. An individual time-table for each pupil obviates much of this waste, and the energy thus conserved under the Howard Plan is variously utilised.

In some cases homework is eliminated, for a pupil of good average ability can by steady work during school hours pass the First School Examination at 16 or 17. In others, the pupil carries out a more ambitious programme or the examination may be taken at an earlier age. Handwork is, for all, an outlet for some of the energy saved. In this, our compulsory syllabus includes (in addition to drawing and sewing) knitting, spinning and weaving, and a one year's course in two of the more strenuous crafts of cookery, gardening and woodwork. The individual time-tables are required to cover, each term, a selected part of the fixed syllabus, but the time set free (perhaps one-third of each working-day) gives considerable scope for individuality within the limitations, financial, educational, and social, of a maintained school in a remote corner of London—and this without prejudice to various successes, from swimming awards to University scholarships.

Improvements in working details, such as reduction in the number of weekly lessons in any subject or compression of the syllabus into a smaller number of stages, adds to free time. A recent lengthening of the unit of time from a term to a half-year diminished by one-third the heavy business of building up general and individual time-tables. But internal economies cannot go much further till outside requirements are reduced. There is hope, however, in the recent trend of University regulations for the First Examination, hope also that the cry of "secondary education for all" may give a wider connotation to the term "secondary."

Addey and Stanhope Secondary Co-educational School, New Cross Road, London, S E 14

This school, which was founded in 1715, and of which Mr B. A. Howard, M.A. (Cantab) is Head, is the only secondary co-educational school on the south side of the Thames, it has been run on the co-educational system since 1920 with marked success. The orderliness, the free and happy atmosphere, and the obviously friendly relations between staff and pupils, are noticeable. There are 300 pupils, boys preponderating, between the ages of 10 and 19. The school is aided by the London County Council, and is run on no special plan, but individual work is done in the Upper Forms, which fall naturally into science, language, and private study groups. There are two courses of work, a quick course and a slow. Pupils after the age of 14 may be transferred from one to the other as subjects of study demand. Competitive examinations are in force, and all Fifth Form pupils are entered for the University of London General School Examination, but the curriculum has a certain amount of elasticity. There is a course in domestic science that is considerably more comprehensive than this course is usually, but it is interesting to note that a large number of girls specialise in chemistry. One to two hours' home work is compulsory. All work in school is done by boys and girls together, but games are played separately.

Mr Howard was a convert to co-education four years ago, and now believes in it firmly. He finds that work is much stimulated, and that the comradeship between the boys and girls is real and natural. The first school tour was undertaken at Easter, 1927, when 81 of the senior pupils went for a fortnight to St. Malo. The really educative effects of this short journey were striking. The cost per head for the complete tour was £4 5s. A school magazine, *The Addeyan*, a live journal, is published each term. Debating, dramatic, and wireless societies and a school orchestra give opportunity for creative self-expression. The library, containing about 2,000 books, is open to all pupils, and is much used.

Oldershaw School for Boys, Wallasey, Cheshire

In this school, of which Mr A. B. Archer, M.A., is Head, all formal lessons are given during the mornings. The afternoon sessions are devoted to independent work on assignments set at the beginning of each week. The Forms are the units for the afternoon sessions, and they work in the presence of the form masters. There is no distinction between homework and independent work done in school. The pupil makes his own choice in the ordering of his work and goes at his own speed. There is full access to subject masters during the afternoons, and the school reference library is freely open to all who wish to make use of it.

During the afternoon sessions there are facilities for all boys in the Upper Forms to join special groups in art and handicraft. There is also provision for choral music and for musical appreciation, and every class has an opportunity for taking work in class dramatics at least once a fortnight. Organized games, on a Form or House basis, visits to places of interest, and meetings of various school societies also take place during the afternoon sessions.

Bec School, Beechcroft Road, London, S W 17.

Bec School, of which Mr S. R. Gibson, M.A. (Cantab) is Head, the first public secondary school erected by the London County Council since the war, was started in September, 1926, and has therefore no definite experimental results to show as yet. It is a building of the newest type, standing in seven acres of ground, five of which are used as playing-fields. The present number of boys is 300, but there is accommodation for 500.

One of the principal aims is to make the library, which is run by the boys, the centre of school life. It contains at present about one thousand volumes only, for Bec School, in common with most others, is faced with the great difficulty of acquiring books. The great need of books in schools, especially in new schools, is not realised, few seem to understand that the library, the centre of culture for all pupils, is the department of school life that ought to be the best equipped, and the first on which money in hand should be spent. This point is worth emphasizing in days when the science laboratory is claiming so much attention.

The method of teaching is the school's own, and is a combination of the class and the individual methods. Teaching is by class for the first two terms of the year, and follows the individual method during the third term. In this way the Head Master is testing the relative advantages of the two; he finds that the combination is successful, the boys getting a good start in their work during the first two terms, and being able to carry on very well by themselves in the third. Games are well organised, the aim being to provide games for every type of boy. Mr. Gibson believes that the shy and nervous boy is more in need of games than the bluff and hearty individual, and these types are especially cared for in the arrangement of games, which are played on four afternoons out of five. The heartier types of boy have the Cadet Corps and the Boy Scout movement connected with the school, to which they can belong. An important part of the gymnasium work is remedial exercises given under medical direction; for this the gymnasium is specially well equipped.

Corporate life plays an important part. There are four houses, so far without names, Mr. Gibson believing that it is better to wait until the right name grows out of the individuality of the house than to force that individuality to conform to a pre-conferred name. The house master stands *in loco parentis* to each boy in his charge, who is expected to consult him in any difficulty. The mid-day meal at school encourages this home atmosphere, and prevents the noon rush and the gobbling of meals so common in day schools. Individual taste and talent is fostered by the various school societies, the activities of which are included in the time-table. There is a choir and a musical society, a debating, a literary and dramatic (junior and senior), a natural history, a geographical, a scientific, and a handicraft and art society, and it is hoped to start a historical society. There is also a librarians' guild and a French club.

Each boy starts the term with twenty-five merit marks. His aim therefore during term is not to lose any of his twenty-five. These are conduct marks only, and at the end of each term a house average is taken. The school is trying to base everything on effort or the lack of it, and to do without marks for

work In reports there is one division for actual work done and another for the standard of work. Thus a boy's report may show poor actual work, but very good effort. Self-government so far has not been tried. The monitorial system is in force, and deals with minor offences, the Head insisting on a unanimous verdict as in trial by jury. Mr Gibson does not believe in corporal punishment, but in one or two isolated cases has had to resort to it when, as he put it, "there was no time to call in a psycho-analyst."

In point of buildings, equipment, method, this is a most interesting school to visit. It has a very quiet, studious and harmonious atmosphere, and the community spirit is strong.

Owen Street Secondary School for Boys, Islington, London, E.C.1

For the past seven or eight years an original Field System has been in operation at the Owen Street Secondary School for Boys, of which Mr E. T. England, M.A. (Cantab.), is Head. The playing-field at Oakleigh Park belonging to the school is in use during the week in school hours. The school is divided into three sections, and on one day in each week each of these sections attends at the field instead of going to the school building. It carries out a special programme of work and games, provision for which is made in the time-table. The field classrooms consist of six steel and asbestos Army huts, purchased, erected and furnished out of the funds raised to commemorate the tercentenary of the Foundation. The day on the field is divided into seven periods: five are devoted to work and two to cricket or football. In summer-time the classes are held outside the huts. The good effects of this scheme on the health of the pupils is noticeable, and it is understood that the London County Council is thinking of applying it as an experiment to some of the elementary schools. One plot of ground could be shared by five elementary schools if each occupied it for a full day. The pupils of the Owen Street Secondary School for Girls also use the Oakleigh Park field in a similar way throughout the summer.

Holt Secondary School, Bagot Street, Liverpool

This school, of which Mr. O. W. Bailey is Head Master, has recently been concerning itself with the development of subjects in what is known as Group IV. of the School Certificate Examination—music, art, constructional work and domestic science. A subject in this Group has always been compulsory for all pupils, and the success achieved has been most gratifying, practical-minded pupils having been glad of the opportunity for showing their special capabilities. The school play, especially, with its utilisation of all the school resources, has been found to be extremely interesting in its results. There are several essentials of a good play for schools. There must be many characters, there must be a plot that can be readily followed, the parts should be worth learning. Therefore with great daring Holt School decided to bring the surf and thunder of the Odyssey to the eyes and ears of an English seaport audience. The play was worked out in a most interesting manner and readers would do well to obtain further details from the Principal.

The Grammar School, Carlisle

This is an account of an experiment made in an old Grammar School which claims to have been founded as a monastery school by St. Cuthbert in the year 685.

Education, at present, goes in for high efficiency. There has been a powerful reaction against the old, hum-drum, go-as-you-please order, and the pendulum has swung so violently in the opposite direction that the present tension is severe. Boys are entered into secondary education younger than they were, and teaching is given more and more by specialist teachers. Their reputations depend upon success in getting pupils through a certificate examination, the standard of which is so high that all have to march at a forced pace, and nobody is responsible for the weight of the pack that the child is asked to shoulder, unless the head teacher of the school is interested in the matter.

The result of all this is a community of driven children, fed on a concentrated diet, and developing as much initiative as you would expect from an animal harnessed to a cart and all the time pushed from behind at more than its natural pace. Stop pushing for a moment and you know what is bound to happen!

At our school we have tried to resist this growing evil. Evening preparation, one of the vicious and unnatural burdens, had been rationed, and boys were not entered for examinations till they were more nearly ready to face them.

Less than a year ago a wave of influenza swept over the school just in time to make our Christmas examination impossible. I formed a sudden decision to try the effect of a wholesale experiment in liberation from the usual demands made upon boys and to watch how they would behave. My staff consented, and a plan was proposed to the boys, the aim of which was to interest them in some practical schemes of work which would bring into play their knowledge of the various subjects forming the school curriculum. It was briefly as follows.

The boys were free to form a sort of British Association, divided into sections according to their school courses. They were to elect their own committees and chairmen and formulate and carry out the details of their schemes, varying or changing them as they chose. The masters held a watching brief and were attached to sections as advisers, to be consulted when desired, and to watch behaviour, as a matter of psychological interest.

Should the idea not succeed, and the boys not take it seriously, an immediate return could be made to the ordinary time-table. This never came before us at all. There was no case of indiscipline throughout the week. The sections were as follows:

- 1 *English*—To write a play illustrating some aspect of modern life.
- 2 *Historical*—To draw up a peace scheme for Europe.
- 3 *Geographical*—To re-plan the town.
- 4 *French*—To discuss the Russian peace proposals as a League of Nations Union Conference. Official language, French. The various countries to be represented.
- 5 *Latin*—To consider the possibilities of Latin as a European Esperanto, and write a letter to a school in every European Capital to test the proposition.

- 6 *Mathematical*—To survey a neighbouring site for use by the school and plan extensions
 7 *Scientific*—To invent some labour-saving devices for the benefit of mothers

To these were added

- 8 A Senior *Psychological* Section to discuss
 A. The adequacy or otherwise of public opinion concerning matters of personal and national morality
 B. The adequacy or otherwise of our ideas on education

Of the above sections certain were to function in the forenoons, others in the afternoon. Boys were free to join any section they could, and were urged to take notes and keep records. Overlap proved impossible to avoid. Sections 1, 4 and 6 suffered badly from it, while 3 and 7 roped in large numbers, about 150 each out of a school of 270.

There was no prospect of completing schemes in the time, but this was left to fate

What happened was, in the fewest possible words, that

- 1 Read and discussed a good deal but did not get to the play. They feared the proposition, and did not understand that they were free to alter it
- 2 Studied the town, ancient, medieval, and modern, and discussed the idea of a peace scheme.
- 3 Did an amazing amount of work, went far afield, and decided to bring out their results in book form.
- 4 Held their conference and read some quite excellent speeches
- 5 Wrote their letter and have started a correspondence. Replies have been delayed, but were most warm. Some six received up to date.
- 6 Got side-tracked over a school bath, but started more general work
- 7 Developed the proposition into the planning of an ideal home, and did much valuable work in preparation. They studied at first-hand, and tested and experimented according to the best traditions of their subject
- 8 Debated almost daily in face of the crowd of competing interests. A most interesting report of the proceedings was drawn up

The last day was occupied by the final sessions and reports of sections. Several of these were quite excellent, and showed how keenly boys had been interested. Critical members of the staff suggested that they had learnt nothing. This was in a sense true, as they were out to use their existing knowledge, not to study. But they had realised a great deal

In an article of this length it is possible only to give the barest outlines. There were two main points of interest. One was the behaviour of the boys. The school wore the aspect of a great business house. We were in constant touch with the outside world, as parties were coming and going on survey work, numerous invitations were given by public institu-

tions and business houses, in response to requests by the boys, and these were seriously taken advantage of. Boys organised admirably, showed the greatest initiative, debated, criticised, co-operated, spoke to the school from the platform, in fact, did all those things which schoolmasters long to see them do and can never get them to do under ordinary conditions.

The other interest lay in the work done. Had it been in itself worthless it still was justified by the spirit in which it was embarked upon. The work, consisting of plans, diagrams, essays, speeches and reports, was displayed on the school library tables. It made an imposing show, and the quality of it was striking. It was scrutinised by professional and business men, who were very favourably impressed by both the manner and the matter. Solutions of traffic problems were, for instance, of serious worth, plans and designs won approval, and the ideas, not only of the senior, but also of the junior boys, showed that youth is capable of tackling vital problems and contributing something of value in doing so.

The practical question it was decided to consider at the close of the week was this—Should there be further experiment? Fortunately, there were severe critics among us, but to make a long story short, after half a term of the old order, by general consent the time-table was broken down, and the lines of the "Dalton Plan" freely followed under our own title of "Nature's Way." Problem after problem has presented itself, and these were almost invariably individual problems of character. It is possible to regard these in two ways, either as difficulties in the way of changing the old order, or as indications that mass treatment never brings out these points of individual interest, and is in this important respect defective as a means of educating youth. We have so regarded the matter, and at present we cannot forecast the future of our enterprise.

Three things we have learnt. Firstly, that no amount of theorizing—nothing, in fact, but the actual testing by experiment of an idea conceived in the mind—yields further vision of possibilities. Secondly, that youth is possessed of powers which, once really liberated, are able to render humanity as wonderful service in the psychological sphere as does electric power in the physical, and thirdly, that so great an act of faith, such belief in humanity and elasticity of imagination are required for the effectual reform of education and the liberation of Youth from Age that it may well happen that more failures precede success than has been the case in the efforts to discover the Poles.

C F PADEL.

The Gateway School.

The Leicester Education Committee will open a new Secondary School at Newarke in September for boys from 11 upwards. The curriculum will include more handwork than is customary in secondary schools, the intention being to provide an education suitable for those whose interests are not necessarily academic.

Can We Measure Morals?

[*Studies in Decent* (Macmillan) is the title of a recently published book by Professors Mark A. May, of Yale, and Hugh Hartshorne, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, N. Y. The book records the first results of a five-year enquiry known as the "Character Education Enquiry." Other volumes will follow dealing with other aspects of character. The following article has been written from notes of a lecture by Professor May and from an article by A. E. Wiggam in the May 1928 number of *World's Work*]

THE custom of treating the child as clay in the hands of the educational potter is time-honoured. Fortunately it is a custom that is gradually falling into disuse. Out of this time-honoured custom arose the belief that words of wisdom regarding moral conduct poured into the ears of a young child would be indelibly stamped upon his soul, and that his acts and impulses all would bear the mark of them. When his acts and impulses showed a fine disregard for grown-up words of wisdom, he was treated as suffering from a bad attack of original sin, and strenuous endeavours were made to eradicate the poison from his character. That belief also is now giving way. It is being realised that moralising does not create moralness. So it has come about that the real value to moral education of organisations such as Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, the Junior Red Cross Society, and many others, is being called in question. Who does not know of the small Boy Scout who, having done no good deed that day and, as the shades of evening fell, getting desperate, released a trapped mouse and gave it to the cat, thus solving the problem to his own satisfaction and that of the cat? The question now engaging the attention of educationists in the United States is: How many childish impulses are being trapped by moral teaching and sacrificed to greed of the good opinion of others, of self-gratification, or of mere gain? Let us consider these questions:

Does the teaching of an ideal to an individual before he has himself gone through the experiences that caused the ideal to grow up in the minds of his teachers, cause him to incorporate that ideal into his own behaviour, or does it

cause merely sentimental introversion and day-dreaming, with a resulting weakening of his character?

Does requiring a pledge promote the sense of honour or a disintegration of the sense of honour?

Does the giving of prizes and rewards for good deeds promote habits of honour and kindness, or of subterfuge and hypocrisy?

Does requiring a child to keep a record of its good deeds make it virtuous or priggish? Or does it teach the value of successful lying?

Does rigid discipline, such as that of military schools and camps, promote self-control or dependence on external props and commands?

Does the learning of the "rules of the game" and the enforced practice of fair play in athletics make more moral citizens, or merely more self-satisfied citizens?

Now the disturbing thing about these questions and hundreds of other similar ones is, that there is no complete answer. Most people would be content to say: it depends upon the individual. But the Institute of Social and Religious Research of New York City was not content with this answer, and appointed Professors May and Hartshorne to investigate the whole matter.

In surveying the field, the investigators came to the conclusion that though the basis of natural character development was ethical or religious ideals, scientific measurement was the only reliable guide. First of all, they set about devising methods and statistical instruments for measuring trends in conduct, and for measuring the results of any special system for improving human

behaviour, or of agencies that may cause deterioration. These decided upon, they bent their attention to the study of the tendencies in school children to lie, cheat and steal, and to the measurement of the amount of deception and the strength of the tendencies to deceive, that exist in ordinary situations among children from about 8 to 16 years of age, both at home and in school. These tests (it is impossible to describe them in detail) were given to 10,865 school children between the ages specified, and taken from many types of schools. A number of the tests were steeply graded in difficulty, and it was found that if a child cheated at a certain point of difficulty he cheated all the way down the scale of difficulty. This is important to remember if we would understand what the investigators mean by "measuring the tendency to deceive."

One of the tests (Improbable Achievement) consisted of a number of small circles arranged in a large ring on a sheet of paper. The test was to take a pencil and, with eyes closed, to put as many dots as possible in each one of these circles, going round the ring in serial order. Any high degree of success was taken as proof that the child peeped. Apparently simple, but really difficult, puzzles were also used; the child who solved them too easily plainly cheated.

Some of the most significant tests had been devised by the Institute of Educational Research, originally for testing intelligence. In this investigation they were used for testing intelligence and deception at the same time. These consisted chiefly of simple arithmetical problems, sets of mixed-up words, and tests of word knowledge and vocabulary. They were given at first without supervision, and later a second set under strict supervision. In the case of the vocabulary test, the children were allowed to take the second set home. If the papers brought back showed a much higher score than the one done in school, it was taken as proof either that they had had help or had used a dictionary.

One device to measure stealing was to give a puzzle to solve by arranging a number of coins in a certain way in a small pasteboard box, each box being secretly marked in order to identify the child. It was found that some children stole some of the coins.

The two main forms of lying, (1) to escape punishment or disapproval, and (2) to gain approval or reward, were measured. One of the tests was the "pioucity" test, containing questions such as: Do you always say your prayers? Do you always obey your parents? Do you always pick up glass when you see it lying in the path? A thoroughly honest child would probably not say Yes to any of these.

Tests of co-operative ability were given to see if the child would do better work if it were for himself than if it were for his class. Also tests of will power. One of these was a sheet of paper with interesting paragraphs and illustrations at the top, and underneath them exercises that the pupil ought to do; he was told to concentrate on the exercises and not to look at the attractions at the top. His endurance was also tested by giving him sips of castor oil, or touching his tongue with a bitter substance to see if he had the will power to control his face. Other tests were framed to discover if a child can estimate the consequences of certain actions. If he rides a scooter near a corner is he able to realise that he may collide with someone rounding the corner?

In seeking to find out WHY some children cheated, lied and stole, and others did not, the investigators made numerous calculations to discover how closely deception in the situations studied, was associated with the following facts of life: age, sex, intelligence, physical and emotional condition, occupation of parents, occupational background, family life (happy, unhappy, etc), race and nationality, religion, school grade, backwardness in work at school, attendance at school, school achievements, association of friends, sociability, suggestibility, attendance at motion pictures, work and

play, deportment, and motives (various types).

It was found that age made little difference up to 14 years. Girls almost always cheated more than boys, but the investigators came to the conclusion that this was due more to the stronger desire of girls to make good in school than to an inferior sense of honour. The girls' scores on the lying tests were considerably higher than the boys, but as these were series of questions on social requirements and observances, the girls would probably be able to answer more of them truthfully than the boys.

It was found that stupidity and deception went together: the more intelligent the pupils the higher their average scores for honesty. Cheating and backwardness in class at school went together, because of the feeling of inferiority. This shows the error of the common belief that high ability and genius go with doubtful morals. It must be remembered that all these results were only averages, and that therefore there were many exceptions to the average rule. Yet, taking it all in all, the brighter pupils cheated less, perhaps because the imagination was more active to see results.

One of the most important discoveries made was that the occupation of the parents had a very consistent relation to the honesty of the children. The parents were divided into four groups: (1) professional, large business, accountants, architects, physicians, teachers; (2) small business, foremen, highly skilled labour; (3) skilled labour—plumbers, electricians, plasterers, mechanics; (4) unskilled labourers. The children of the first group stood out conspicuously as the most honest, their returns in work done at home, especially, being distinctly above the average. Children of doctors and clergymen ranked especially high.

The research threw some light on the complex problem of how far heredity and environment influence character. It was found that a brother and sister resembled one another in intelligence, a fact partly explained by common inborn tendencies or weaknesses. It was also found that

honesty and dishonesty ran in families to about the same degree as intelligence and stupidity. The general facts emerging from these investigations clearly showed that honesty or dishonesty in parents is reflected in their children. Children coming to the States from oppressed countries seemed to be more liable to cheat than those coming from comparatively free countries.

One of the most interesting and highly satisfactory facts was the great apparent influence of the teacher on the pupils. The first tests showed that progressive school pupils were more honest than state school children, but a further test nullified this finding, and showed that in both kinds of school cheating was greater when there was some maladjustment between teacher and pupils. If the progressive schools showed good results it was because the progressive movement in education attracts a finer type of teacher, capable of more harmonious relations with the pupils. In one school a class of very dishonest pupils passed the following year into the charge of a different teacher. Within that year this most dishonest class became the most honest class in the school. In this connection the relative value of various influences in making a child honest may be mentioned. It was found that the influence of the Sunday-school teacher was 0; of the day-school, 6; of the Club teacher, 20; of the father, 40; of the mother, 60; and of the chum, 78.

One way of getting at the home atmosphere was a "good manners" test, the child being asked to score as true or false such statements as the following:—"If the soup is too hot, blow on it." "In helping yourself to sugar, use your own spoon." "A boy should not keep a girl talking on the pavement." "When not in use the teaspoon should be (1) left in teacup, (2) placed on the table, or (3) placed in the saucer." Children with good manners were found to cheat slightly less. It was found to make no difference whether a child came from a Catholic, Jewish or Protestant home.

Regarding the part played by the

Protestant Sunday-school, it was evident that the children who attended regularly were no more honest than those who went occasionally, and that those who had attended for a number of years were no more honest than those who had attended for a short time.

Professors May and Hartshorne studied two of the systems that have recently been introduced into many schools for the purpose of teaching character. These two they called "System X" and "System Y." Three thousand children were tested. In System X each child kept a record of specified good deeds, and was rewarded for good records by being promoted from rank to rank. The investigators were startled to find that the children whose records were highest and advancement quickest, were the greatest cheaters. It is instructive to note that the children who moved at the regular pace (an average of one button or rank per term) cheated least, while those who moved faster or slower cheated most, also, those children who had been longest in the organisation were the greatest cheaters. With regard to System Y, which was one of those organisations that endeavour to build character by civic activities, wholesome and interesting ways of occupying leisure, scout craft, etc., and was made the object of special study, the results obtained are summed up by the investigators as follows—"We can only conclude that in these places this widely used agency for moral education, whatever its effects may be elsewhere, is either neutral or deleterious with regard to one of its aims, namely, the teaching of honesty. This conclusion must at once be supplemented, however, for System Y as for System X and the religious schools, by the caution that in other ways it may be having a vast influence for good. But, with Y as with X and the rest, these other objectives also must some day pass through the refining fire of scientific measurements." Great credit is due to the association that planned these systems, because it withdrew them from schools when the psychological results were made known.

Another fact came to light. The investigators studied what they called the "specific nature of conduct." By this they mean (1) that conduct is learned, and (2) that it is learned with reference to particular situations. They found that honesty and dishonesty are "functions," and the result of the particular situation in which they are exhibited. If the situation is repeated often enough, the honest or dishonest conduct becomes a habit, and a function of that situation, and will carry over into similar situations only to the extent of the common elements in the situations. Honesty, then, according to them, is not a definite character trait—children honest in one thing may be dishonest in another, honest at home, they may be dishonest in school. So with adults. There is little or no transfer from one situation to another. Moral education is, in part, an adjustment of spontaneous habit to necessity. Situations that cannot be met provoke dishonesty. In time it will be possible to give the Moral

Quotient and the Personality Quotient of a person just as now the Intelligence Quotient can be given. In the Moral Quotient there would be three factors.

(1) The intellectual knowledge of what is right; (2) the emotional dynamic factor; (3) the ability to act according to the intellectual knowledge. The emotional dynamic factor seems to be a stronger influence upon conduct than the intellectual. The ability to apply intellectual knowledge to practical action takes more time to develop, society is very slowly being brought to new ways. As these new ways are learned only by long-repeated experiences, it is useless to expect a child to show a rapid transfer from idea to action. Therefore preaching to a child is useless, *vide* the low degree of influence of the Sunday-school teacher. But personal example counts, for personal influence is rapidly transferred from consciousness to action. These are controversial statements, but are nevertheless worth recording without any qualifications, as being the findings of two earnest investigators.

The investigators conclude that learning how to live is just the same as learning any other task, any other set of skills. The set of skills necessary for success in arithmetic are of no use in learning history, for example. And no combination of sets of skills makes true education. This needs a certain fine and discriminating relationship between a man and his knowledge on the one side, and life and society on the other. This relationship the morally educated man has, and the morally uneducated man has not. A man of great learning may not have this kind of education. A man, they hold, is not born with some special "sense" of honesty, or any special "moral sense," whatever. His set of behaviour skills are all learned. He may therefore be honest because he has learned that it is the best policy. And he has not learned even this policy with reference to the whole round of human associations. He may possess all the virtues and not be virtuous. What distinguishes the good man from the bad is the "inner quality of the MAN himself as an organized and socially functioning individual." Professors May and Hartshorne seem to believe that moral education should be along two broad general lines: (1) the removal of temptations and of such factors as have been demonstrated are associated with dishonest behaviour; (2) carrying children through those types of experience in which, by repeated practice, the child will learn the sense and sentiment of honour, and hold them as inner personal possessions. The child's intelligence and will should be in harmony with the intelligence and will of his associates, not deceptively against them. Thus he will learn, by the use of his intelligence, to include his new experiences in his evolving habit-system of moral decision and endeavour; he will come into a moral mastery of his world. He will achieve real freedom, an insight and self-mastery that will impel him with high heart to "challenge an imperfect world with a high ideal" of his own.

Some Central or Modern Schools

(At the age of eleven plus there are two opportunities before the children of the State elementary schools in England. They can pass into the secondary schools, if they are successful in the examination set for this purpose, or they can enter a central school, for which they are selected partly by examination and partly on the record of progress and conduct. The central schools have a definite "bias," either commercial or industrial.)

CENTRAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, Down Lane, Tottenham, London, N 17

Down Lane School is one of three central schools opened by the Tottenham Education Committee in 1919 to provide advanced instruction for selected pupils from elementary schools. The Head Mistress is Miss D. E. Rees, B.Sc. The school accommodates from 320—350 girls, working in four grades or years. Eighty to ninety girls are admitted annually.

The Staff consists entirely of trained, experienced graduates, or mistresses with equivalent qualification, and the teaching is specialist throughout. The rate of staffing is equal to that of a secondary school. In this respect Down Lane is exceptionally fortunate among central schools, the Tottenham Education Committee being undoubtedly one of the most progressive authorities in the country, while its Director of Education stands in the forefront of the pioneers of post-primary education.

The Curriculum is that of a junior secondary school, with certain modifications, and includes French, German or Latin, science and mathematics, in addition to the usual school subjects. Instruction is given also in needlework, domestic science, art, music and physical training.

School Courses. During the first two years all girls follow a course of general education. By the end of this period they have been classified accurately according to ability. In the third and fourth years they work in one of three groups. The A course leads to Matriculation or Cambridge School Examinations and is followed by intending-teacher candidates and candidates for clerical posts in the Civil Service. The B course includes two languages other than English, book-keeping, shorthand and typing, and is followed by girls who wish to enter business houses and insurance offices, or to take secretarial posts. The C course includes more practical work. This course is followed by girls who show an aptitude for handwork. Some girls drop French and have increased opportunity for art or music. Dressmaking (personal) is introduced. Facilities are given which encourage the girls to read widely under expert guidance. This course does much for the slow and backward girl.

Bias. The school aims at giving a sound general education on broad lines, but since most of its scholars subsequently take up clerical work the bias, if any, is commercial.

Social Training. There is a flourishing house system. Past and present scholars unite once a year in celebrating the anniversary of the opening of the school on October 1st, and there is an Old Scholars' Association.

School Journeys. These are a special feature of this school. Every child admitted in the September of one year is taken away for a week's school journey in the following May. This period is one of great social activity. The girls are provided with the best accommodation practicable. They have pretty

rooms, good food and proper service. Children are adaptable and quickly learn to appreciate decent conditions. It is impossible to over-estimate the civilising influence of the school journey. A second journey, occupying two weeks, takes place in the third year, when time and funds permit. Educational visits are paid to museums, concerts, and the Old Vic during the ordinary school course.

Finance. School journeys, concerts, educational visits and examination fees are expensive luxuries. But parents contribute a part, the local education authority makes a grant, and mistresses, girls and friends find the rest. The children initiated a Monday morning collection to defray the examination fees of clever girls who could not afford to pay for themselves. This money is placed in the Post Office Savings Bank in the children's name and is used solely for fees.

CENTRAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, Love Street, Chester.

In this school there are 240 girls between the ages of 11 and 16. The Head Mistress is Miss R. Weaver.

The Individual. The Dalton Plan is in operation in Love Street School, and has been found immensely helpful in dealing with the individual who is often capable of good work but is lacking in self-reliance, and often shows responsibility for conduct with no corresponding responsibility for work. The classrooms are subject-rooms for all the usual subjects, household science, needlework and art, the hall being used for music and physical education. A "guide, philosopher and friend" presides over each department, and the children move freely from room to room as their own plan of work requires, quietly, though they are allowed to talk freely. A complete piece of work in each subject is set, and, when satisfactorily completed, is signed for in each girl's private record book by the mistress taking the subject. The children take great pride in these signatures, as records of good work worthily done. Some do waste time, or more frequently get behind in their work, through weak planning of their individual schedules, but these difficulties adjust themselves with experience, especially as many leisure moments are budgeted for. There are class lessons too, much enjoyed in the variety they afford.

All work done is carefully tested, periodic tests, six each year, being given. An individual record card of progress is kept for each, and these, with all test papers, go home for parents' perusal. This close and frequent work-contact with the home is as invaluable in the light it sheds upon each child's progress as the permanent and gradual record of development kept. It is not necessary for each girl to shoulder the burden of all school subjects at once; subjects are carefully graded for the individual into basic and supplementary, in which class lessons are correspondingly more or less, and individual work

graded in extent and quantity. Other subjects are alternative or optional for an allotted period.

The Group. At the age of eleven the post-primary scheme known as the Central School necessitates a complete break in the child's school career. Friends of equal age and similar attainments are often parted by the exigencies of selective examination. The fullest opportunity then for vital comradeship of work and play must be ensured. For this the House system has supplied a very real need. It is also valuable training for leadership, both in games, for which there are four Sports Captains and four Games Captains-in-training in the Lower School, and in administration. The four House Captains, seniors, are leaders in every sense.

Organised group activities in each House include general meetings for House business, proceedings in self-government, community events, and a weekly assembly during one Scripture period for the Housemistress's talk. Unorganised group activities are spontaneous and varied, springing from the originality of the group, and always granted execution. One such is the House tea, prepared for House members by elected cooks and caterers, and served by efficient waitresses, with a hostess who welcomes the guests and presides with youthful charm. Most remarkable are the voluntary washers-up from other Houses, who delight in relieving the members of the reveling House of this onerous task.

Outlook. School interests also extend to the wider community life. The less fortunate child, the suffering, dumb playmates and pets, and folk of other races have place in its thought and endeavour. Dramatic work, which is extensively undertaken, gives opportunity for each senior group, yearly before leaving, to give a public performance in aid of some national charity. A child's hospital cot is partially supported by the children's free-will gifts. The school branch of the League of Nations Union includes the whole of the Senior School, all voluntary members, and its weekly meetings and inspiring lectures by outside speakers, staff and girls, brace all to work individually and collectively for the ideals of Peace and Progress.

BOW CENTRAL SCHOOL, Coborn Street, London, E 3

Mr J A White, the Head Master of Bow Central School, is one of the leaders of the Central School movement. Very interesting work can be seen at this school, especially in history and handwork. We regret that space forbids more than this brief mention.

Other Central Schools that should be mentioned are—**The Central School, Stoke Newington; Swanscombe Central School, Kent; Swansea and Newport, Mon., Central Schools.**

Some Open-Air Schools

OPEN-AIR SCHOOL, Warmsworth, Doncaster

This school, which was built by the Doncaster Town Council in 1925-26, is intended for delicate school children, and accommodates 240 boys and girls in two separate departments, one for physically defective children (cripples), the other for mental deficiencies. The school is built on a site of some three and a quarter acres in one of the highest and healthiest suburbs of the city. There are seven classrooms with a manual room for each department, all facing south, reached by means of a glass-covered open verandah. Verandah and rooms are fitted with screens for use in inclement weather, and sunblinds. Separate entrances are provided for boys and girls of each department. Behind the school is the administrative block, containing medical inspection and treatment rooms, teachers' rooms, dining-room, etc. Surgical appliances are kept in a special department. The bathroom contains a range of shower baths with hot and cold water supplied through mixing valves, so that the teacher can maintain a suitable temperature. A hip bath and douches are also provided. The scholars use these baths daily. The plain, nourishing food is cooked by electric cookers. The heating arrangements must be mentioned. All the rooms are warmed by the "Panel Invisible" system, the heat being transmitted from the walls and ceilings and equally diffused throughout the rooms. This is the first open-air school in this country that is using this system which, it is claimed, is more economical in fuel consumption pro rata of efficiency than any other. There are three playgrounds. A paved area in front of the classrooms, a grass court, and gardens for horticulture. Either the front or the back of the school can be thrown entirely open, and every device

that the latest experience and researches in this department of education can suggest for furthering the health of these children has been employed. The school is so situated that it can never be hemmed in

HOLLY COURT OPEN-AIR SCHOOL, Merton Lane, Highgate, London, N

This school was opened in the summer of 1927 by the London County Council. Holly Court stands in lovely grounds, and here come some 150 children from the surrounding poor districts to benefit by an open-air education and good food. It is hoped soon to be able to accommodate 260 children. The school is open from 9 a.m. until 6 p.m. in the summer and from 9 until 4.30 in the winter, and on Saturday mornings. It was intended to keep the school open for specially delicate children during the holidays, but this was not feasible. Classes are held in bungalows specially constructed with an overhang of three and a half feet so that rain and snow cannot enter, and the desks are so made that the child can sit comfortably when wrapped up in a blanket. Classes are held outdoors even in winter, the children going for frequent runs and stamping their feet to keep warm. Each child has a weekly hot bath, but cold water is used for other washing purposes, and aids materially in the hardening process. As there is need for economy, the equipment is poor, and there are no specialists on the staff to take such subjects as gardening, nature study, and craft work. But Holly Court has made an excellent start, the children showing very great benefit from their outdoor life. Three meals a day are provided at the cost of 3/4 per head per week, of which sum the parents pay what they can afford.

THE KING'S CANADIAN RESIDENTIAL OPEN-AIR SCHOOL, *Bushy Park, Hampton Hill, Middlesex*

Upper Lodge, Bushy Park, was lent during the War by the King to the Canadian Red Cross Society, who erected temporary hospital buildings. These were offered by the King at the end of the War to the London County Council for the promotion of the health of London's delicate boys, and here 300 boys live all the year round except for a fortnight at Christmas. The buildings are ideal for the purpose, and "Bushy" is like a small settlement, set in the midst of large and fine grounds adjoining Bushy Park. The boys are selected, 70 each week, from all the London districts in turn, and are sent to "Bushy" for a period of four weeks, more or less. If any boy cannot bring suitable clothing with him the school care committee do their best to provide what is lacking. Any boy who has a musical instrument may take it with him to the school. Parents are expected to pay a weekly sum according to their means, and may come to see their son on the third Saturday of his stay. As far as possible the ordinary school work is got through, with practical work in geography and nature study, for which the woods and park provide ample scope. Pigs, sheep, poultry and tame mice are kept at the school, there are rabbits in their own burrows inside their own enclosure, an aviary full of birds, a pond with swans, geese, ducks and wild fowl. A small river flowing past a wood has been dammed up in two places to form bathing-pools, one for swimmers. Cinema shows and wireless concerts are given in the theatre, and every week the boys themselves give a concert, each weekly party practising to give its concert in the last week of its stay. On Saturday nights a bonfire is lit in the woods, and the boys sit round singing songs and spinning yarns. There are four "houses"—King's, Queen's, Canada, and Bushy—each party arriving at the school forming one of these. Regular medical inspection, constant supervision, and exercises, added to good food, early hours and plenty of rest, work wonders in a very short space of time.

STOWEY HOUSE OPEN-AIR SCHOOL, *Clapnam Common, London, S W*

This school, now under Mr A J Green as Head Master, was opened in 1920 for the benefit of 300 children selected from elementary schools, many of them from slum areas. No children suffering from consumption are admitted, but those either of delicate physique or with family histories that are bad from the medical point of view. A nursing sister is in charge of the children, who are weighed and measured regularly, and the school doctor pays weekly visits. Attendance at the school lasts for one, two, or even three years. There are two and a half acres of school grounds and in these are an open-air dining-hall and eight open-air classrooms. Children and staff have also erected a shelter that holds 300 children for rest. The children are selected early in the year for admission after Easter, and minor defects and ailments are expected to receive attention before admission so that regular attendance may be ensured as far as possible. This has been found to be most important, as a relapse in health follows even a few days' absence from the open-air school. The parents pay a weekly sum towards the cost according to their circumstances.

The school is open in summer from 9 a.m. until 6 p.m., on Saturdays from 9 until 1 (when attendance is compulsory), and in winter from 9 until 5. The L.C.C. pay the children's tram fares. The school opens with breakfast, and thereafter until noon lessons are carried on. After dinner, from 1.30 until 3.15 the children rest, many of them sleeping soundly in their hammock beds. After the rest come breathing exercises, and after that lessons again until 5.15. Tea is served at 5.30. Nature study and all kinds of practical manual work occupy a prominent place in the curriculum, and the development of character and the spirit of citizenship are fostered by communal life. The classes are made as alive as possible, all studies being hinged on to the children's activities. Scenes in history are acted, for instance, the girls making the costumes. Both boys and girls help the kitchen staff to a certain extent. Special children are chosen to have a course of sun treatment during the summer months, the boys wearing shorts and the girls a pair of knickers and a small skirt attached to a bib, which they make themselves of yellow mercerised lawn. Care is taken to ensure uniformity of exposure to the direct rays of the sun and an even distribution of light effects on all the skin surface. The most pronounced effect of the sun treatment is shown in improvement in alertness and general alertness, and the constant craving to tackle and complete a set piece of work. It may be of interest to mention that experience has proved that no head covering plus dark glasses is much preferable to the wearing of hats without eye protection. Another interesting fact that has been noticed is the effect on the teacher of the sun class, who works with head and arms bare, there is a steady improvement in stamina, considerable increase in weight, and a general toning up.

BRACKENHILL, *Hartfield, Sussex*

A private open-air Boarding School for normal children, which term nowadays includes many delicate ones—few, very few, alas! being really robust. The children are in the fresh air day and night, sleeping in open sheds. They have real sun-baths whenever possible. There has been no month in the year during which it has not been possible to give them some sun in a specially constructed building, which is a veritable sun-trap. With clothes that continue skin-hardening and pigmentation processes, and simple, carefully balanced diet which regulates the daily digestion, miracles are worked which must be seen to be believed.

The aim of Brackenhill is a simple all-round intelligence that will make a sure foundation for whatever walk of life may be the lot of the children committed to its care. To this end the children are taught to read so as to increase their own love and appreciation of good literature and to give pleasure to those who listen to them, to write in a clear hand, and to spell correctly, with special reference to letter-writing, and enough arithmetic to guarantee, at least, accurate accounts for all ordinary purposes of life, and enough mental arithmetic to ensure rapid shopping calculations.

Brackenhill wants to turn out useful everyday citizens, capable of choosing with intelligence the men and women who govern them, citizens with high ideals of service and a keen sense of the responsibility of life.

(Continued on page 114.)

The Nursery School Movement in England

By Grace Owen

(Hon. Secretary: the Nursery School Association)

THE last ten years have seen a very slow but quite unmistakable development of the Nursery School Movement in England.

Establishment

The Education Acts of 1918 gave to every Education Authority in Gt. Britain the right to use public money for the establishment of Nursery Schools for children between two and five years of age. Before that year the movement had been carried on entirely by voluntary organisations, which had nobly demonstrated both the terrible need existing amongst children of the poorest classes and that the most effective way of meeting that need was through the Nursery School. Under the new Act voluntary Nursery Schools were in a few cases adopted by the Education Authorities for the purposes of grant while retaining their own Managing Committees. Other Nursery Schools were opened by a few of the more far-sighted and progressive of Education Authorities, and these are supported entirely by the rates and taxes.

The Nursery School occupies a peculiar position amongst English educational institutions, in that, although the Act makes possible the provision of Nursery Schools for all "whose attendance is necessary or desirable," no Education Authority is obliged to establish them. The Act therefore gives them a positive place in the National System of Education, and yet in such a form that an immense urge of public opinion is necessary before that place can be taken and established in its proper relation to the elementary and secondary school system. It is little wonder that, when in 1921 the

wave of enthusiasm immediately after the war for all that concerns the preservation of child life gave way to a terror of expenditure that nipped all far-sighted measures in the bud, the urge of public opinion flagged, and to all outward appearance the nursery school movement made very little headway during the next seven years. Facile objections—such as "the place for the child is the home," or the relatively high cost per head of small nursery schools, and other objections similarly irrelevant to the question as a national concern—have been allowed to hold up progress in establishing nursery schools in adequate numbers, and even now England cannot boast of more than 26 recognised, State-supported Nursery Schools.

Public Opinion

This small tangible result may well raise the question as to whether England is still taking the lead in this important national movement, for other countries—notably the United States—have during the last six years recognised increasingly the fundamental importance of the pre-school years, and are fast multiplying nursery schools by which the pressing need of these years may be met. In such a cause to follow or to lead is an equal privilege, or rather it is given to all to lead each in a different way. As regards England, however, it is important to notice that in 1918 she took a step as to which there is not the least question of either withdrawal or regret, and which gives the nursery school in England a sure future, slow as development may have seemed for a time. There is delay in advance, but advance all the time. It

is seen in the extension and improvement of existing nursery schools. It is seen in the constant stream of effort made by Councillors on Local Education Authorities in various towns and cities to get a nursery school scheme adopted for their own areas, pointing to success in the near future in several places. It is seen in the large sympathetic audiences at the meetings lately addressed by our great pioneer—Miss Margaret McMillan—in all parts of Gt. Britain, as well as in the notable increase of serious observers and inquirers in existing nursery schools. It is seen as well in the increase of the activities of the Nursery School Association, and the response to its widespread appeal for support of an amendment of the Act, which shall make it obligatory on Local Education Authorities to establish Nursery Schools. Sheffield has just opened its first municipal nursery school for 100 children.

As is well known, also, the Nursery School Movement has now a measure of warm support from all three of the political parties, and of these the Labour Party is committed completely to their establishment. The extension of the franchise to women of 21 years of age will doubtless help the cause.

All these signs point to the fact that the strong urge of public opinion necessary to more rapid development is approaching very near, and that the steady advance that has been going on during these seemingly inactive years will soon become apparent.

Characteristics

The characteristics of the English Nursery School correspond to the circumstances of its origin. It has been first of all a response to the dire needs of little children born and bred in the poverty-stricken, overcrowded areas of our big cities. The immediate rescue of body and soul from the effects of a wrong environment, before the critical three years have passed, gave the motive power to the voluntary nursery school, which was the pioneer of the municipal nursery school.

As a municipal institution our Nursery Schools retain this characteristic, but recent years have seen much development of aims and methods pursued in individual ways by each. Different as one is from another and few in number in all, it is yet possible to indicate some of the ideas underlying and explaining their line of development in this country.

In the first place the Nursery School is seen to be indispensable as a means of raising the standard of physical health. Sir George Newman, the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health and the Board of Education, has emphasised again and again the serious significance of the 30 to 40 per cent. of preventable physical defect found in children entering school at the age of five, and has urged repeatedly the desirability not only of increasing and strengthening all agencies of infant welfare, but also the necessity for Nursery Schools as the best means of providing sure foundations for a healthy manhood and womanhood. Thus the provision of healthy conditions and training in profitable habits are the first requirements of a Nursery School. In deciding the precise emphasis that should be laid on this or that method of fulfilling these requirements, it is admitted that in England the use of special research has been so far at a minimum. In this respect we lag far behind our fellow workers in the United States, whose special studies are, in so many University Departments and experimental Nursery Schools, accumulating tested knowledge which will in future guide the practical organisation of the Nursery School that must be provided in the future for vast numbers of children of different races.

On the other hand, the English Nursery School has not hesitated to act upon knowledge already acquired and to gain daily by experience an intimate knowledge of the essential needs of early childhood. It is only now after several years of such effort that it is possible to indicate clearly the lines on which progress has actually been achieved, and may be looked for increas-

ingly in the future. The results recently published in connection with the Rachel McMillan Nursery School in the Public Health Report of the London County Council, 1926, are a striking witness to the effectiveness of the methods there used as a means of reducing physical defect in children under five years of age (see page 147).

Country Holidays

Several Nursery Schools arrange to take the children into the country for two weeks during the summer, when rapid benefit is noted in nearly every case. This custom is valued not only for the obvious improvement in bodily health that it ensures, but for the wonderful revelation of ideas it brings to the little town child.

Manchester children are fortunate in owning their own Children's Inn at Rowarth, amongst the Derbyshire hills and dales, to which groups are taken in succession during the summer for a fortnight at a time from the Nursery Schools and Classes of Manchester.

Education

While the Nursery School is in England conceived as a great constructive measure which, by laying sound foundations of health in childhood, shall be the means of preventing distressing physical defect later in life, it would be incorrect to conclude that its aims coincide with those of the Day Nursery. The main characteristic of Nursery School life (in which Nursery School education consists) is its concern for the whole and undivided personality of the child. It is recognised that the care of the body must never take precedence of the provision of the right environment for healthful development of the mental and emotional life of the child, and indeed that inter-relations between these are so close and subtle that one of the pitfalls most to be avoided is that of allowing a little child's education to fall into compartments each dealt with separately. It is perhaps the sense of this danger that makes us in England slow to staff our Nursery Schools with

specialists of various types, and indeed to give our superintendents complete responsibility for all sides of their work.

In this brief paper it is impossible to do more than touch on many important points, and to omit entirely many that suggest themselves, but it cannot be ended without reference to one supremely important aspect of the nursery school movement, namely, the training of superintendents and assistants for the work.

Training of Staff

What has been said above as to the comprehensive responsibility given to the superintendent in an English Nursery School indicates the importance to be attached to suitable courses of training. These will doubtless evolve as experience and research point the way and as the existing courses of training develop. Already, however, it is evident that none of the orthodox training courses of the past will meet the case. There is a sense in which the demands of the Nursery School upon the equipment of the teacher are none of them actually new, yet when the work as a whole is considered it is found that the emphasis required is new, and the total outcome of any thorough consideration of the problem must lead to the organisation of new training courses, which shall give to the superintendent not only a thorough preparation for the various aspects of her work, but an adequate conception of the function of the Nursery School as a whole, and its relation both to the home and to infant welfare institutions on the one hand, and to the school on the other.

In English organisation there is a great deal of linking up yet to be done and a long road to travel before the Nursery School movement shall realise its possibilities for child life and for the national life. We have much to learn from other countries, and much to work out ourselves, but it cannot be doubted that this movement is one of the most significant and hopeful of our time, and thus sure of eventual fulfilment.

The Rachel McMillan Nursery School, Church Street, Deptford, London

The Rachel McMillan Nursery School, as is well-known, is carried on in open-air shelters in a crowded London area. It provides for 250 children between two and five years of age from 8 to 9 hours daily. The Report of the London County Council shows that the resistive powers of children attending this open-air nursery school are markedly greater than those of other children in the same neighbourhood. Thus the incidence of measles was only 7 per cent., and minor ailments, such as scabies and impetigo, disappeared entirely. At a time when over 700 children between one and five years of age died of measles there was no fatal case in the nursery school. The treatment of rickets also at this age under open-air nursery school conditions has usually resulted in cure in less than a year. The investigations of the medical officer showed that the condition of children coming from two specified nursery schools to the infant school of the neighbourhood was distinctly superior to that of other entrants.

At the Rachel McMillan Nursery School all meals are provided, and it is clear that this fact is an important contributing cause of the striking results quoted above.

Not all English nursery schools are at present open-air schools, nevertheless the open-air nursery school must be considered typical. There is no difference of opinion that open-air conditions are essential for the best results in regard to bodily health and vigorous mentality, and there is no doubt that all new nursery schools will afford an open-air life as a first requirement. GRACE OWEN.

The Lilycroft Open-Air Nursery School, Bradford, Yorks

This school was built by the Bradford City Education Authority for the accommodation of 60 children between the ages of two and five years. The building is of the bungalow type with folding doors, facing south. There is an abundance of toys and apparatus—sand pit, an inclined plane, swings, rope-ladders, a large play-house, bricks and blocks and gardening tools. There are also pets to tend, for living things are essential to child life. The bathroom is fitted with hot and cold water, a miniature swimming bath and showers.

The children stay at the nursery all day. Nursery dinner and morning and afternoon milk are provided at a cost of 2s. per week for each child. Necessitous children are received at a reduced charge or free. Some of the richer parents pay the fees for the poorer ones with large families.

The nursery staff consists of a superintendent, a trained nursery school teacher, a probationer and a housekeeper. Mothers and fathers give extra help whenever possible. With such a minimum staff detailed research and scientific psychological investigation become impossible.

Democratic Basis. This nursery, in common with all other nursery schools in England, is run on an entirely democratic basis. No child is refused. Children of the very poor, of industrial workers, of doctors and professional people mix happily together. Moreover, the parents have been brought together by common interest. The nursery school thus becomes one family community of children, parents and teachers learning from each other.

Parents' Club. The Parents' Club meets weekly

in the nursery. Difficulties of home and school are discussed. There are frequent lectures, debates, discussions.

Freedom. There are very few rules. Children choose their own occupations and play. They come or go at will. Children of a mixed age group tend to stimulate, to encourage and discipline each other.

Nursery Training Course for School Girls. In connection with the hygiene and domestic science syllabus it has been possible to organise a practical nursery training course for girls of 12 to 14 years from the adjoining elementary school. The girls attend the nursery school in turn and take part in all the activities. The Superintendent gives instruction in child care, child hygiene and simple home treatments. Through the voluntary co-operation of a woman doctor (who is also a nursery mother herself) the girls receive talks on sex hygiene before leaving school. These talks are highly appreciated by the parents of the girls and were in fact suggested by them.

The Wright Street Nursery School, Derby

This school is found in the midst of a crowded area, where child life has scant room for healthy development.

A building has been adapted for the purpose of the school. Three French windows have been thrown out of the large playroom, so that it is flooded with fresh air and sunlight, and the children have free access to the asphalt yard with the garden beyond.

The playroom is brightly decorated and is gay with plants and flowers. It is provided with the low cupboards, small chairs and tables, and numerous toys, which are the essentials of every nursery school. In the yard are sand pit, see-saw, rib-stalls, rabbit hutches, toy house. The garden provides grass for play and flower beds for small gardeners.

There are 80 children in the school. The Superintendent is a trained and certificated teacher with special qualification for nursery school work. Her assistant is also a trained certificated teacher.

It is possible to watch the happy activities of the school and to think that all is play. This is far from being the case.

Here is a small boy who has come for approval to his teacher showing shining face and little pink hands. It has been a glorious play to wash himself in the fascinating basin provided for small folk, but he has also learnt self-reliance and the worth of cleanliness.

This little girl so carefully carrying a plate of soup to another child at the dinner table is learning control of limbs and body, and also to supply another's need before her own.

This group of bairns so joyously doing rhythmical exercises to music is learning to listen.

Yes—the nursery school is rightly called a school, for nothing is planned or wrought which does not take into consideration the all round development of the child.

The Derby school will gladly welcome visitors.

Princeville Nursery School, Bradford

This open-air nursery school is a simple building with four rooms opening on to a verandah and a garden, with a closed bathroom at one end.

The master-concept of the nursery school is the development of the motor and sensory power of the infant through auto-activity.

The activities of this school are not of the kindergarten or play school, nor games and pretty employments devised by the teacher, but they are a natural manifestation of the children's need for movement, systematic in that it follows the line of psychical and physiological development, and without the hard and fast rules of the time-table.

Here the day begins with bath, then follow activities in the garden. The nursery flowers can be plucked and put in little jars, or windows cleaned and the doll's house swept and dusted.

All that the arts can do for the child is brought to his service in the ideal nursery school. The rare sensitiveness of the baby nervous system can be induced, by education, to respond to colour, sound, rhythm, form and touch so that knowledge of these becomes a part of his whole organism, and the glad vitality of his life is sufficient proof that drawing, singing, modelling, romances and dramatic action are the forms through which he can best be educated.

The nursery school conception carries with it so much of the thought that is pouring into human affairs to-day, that questions the origin of mind, and the relative place and value of intellect and intuition, that more space is required than is available here to do justice to its ideals.

A film of the Princeville Nursery School will be available in the summer for any who would care to borrow it.

The George Dent Nursery School, Darlington

A small nursery school was started in a house in Darlington in 1917 by the Women's United Services Club. In 1918 it was moved to its present building, Fairfield, which was at first rented by the British and Foreign School Society which owns the Training College. The Society ultimately purchased the building, realising that the nursery school would serve as a means of training students in the knowledge of the needs and characteristics of the pre-school child.

Fairfield is a large house situated in one of the best parts of the town, and is particularly adapted to the requirements of a nursery school. It faces south, has large rooms with big windows and a verandah looking on to a beautiful garden with a sand pit at the end of it. The school accommodates 80 children between the ages of two and five years. The present average attendance is 72. The children come from the over-crowded and poor districts of the town and are conveyed to the school in a special bus. On admission, many of the children are found to be suffering from some defects, e.g. rickets, enlargement of tonsils and adenoids, defective vision and general pre-tubercular conditions of the chest and glands.

Weekly visits are paid by the doctor. Each child is given cod liver oil daily and a large number have Parrish's chemical food in addition. Special cases are given sun treatment and massage. When the weather is fine the children live entirely in the open air. It is gratifying to note that most of the children are completely cured before they reach school age. Records are kept of health, monthly weights and home conditions.

Sense training is given on Montessori lines and opportunity for full mental development is provided by various occupations. The children have brown bread and butter and milk for lunch, and a hot dinner with a carefully chosen and varied menu. The sleep hour follows dinner.

There is a permanent staff of a superintendent, a

trained assistant and three probationers. Regular visits are paid to the homes, and the Mothers' Club is a great factor in bringing about happy co-operation. At present there is a waiting list of about forty.

The Nursery School is managed by a committee representing the Training College and the Local Education Authority.

Sutton Nursery School, West Street, Sutton

Fifteen years ago a member of the Sutton Adult School founded a free kindergarten with just five children. It is now a flourishing nursery school with 125 children, housed in big, airy premises, with a beautiful garden in which the children spend a good part of every day. When we visited the nursery school a few weeks ago we had the privilege of a talk with Mr. Thomas Wall, to whose generosity and initiative the work owes everything. He spoke enthusiastically of the benefit derived from the splendid health conditions. Youngsters who come delicate and listless soon develop into healthy, vigorous children.

Dartmouth Street Nursery Class, Birmingham

This class, attached to a large Council Infants' School, accommodates 34 children drawn from one of the worst slums of Birmingham. The selection of the children is one of the greatest problems. There is a long waiting list and the claims of the child whose sole home consists of a top attic have to be weighed with those of another whose mother is dying of cancer in a back street house.

The children occupy a room with a movable screen which converts it into an open-air shelter. The children spend their hours singing, dancing, feeding pets, watching the growth of plants and tadpoles, working with Montessori and other apparatus, and playing in the sand-pit. A nurse visits the class daily to attend to ears, sore eyes, etc., and a monthly visit from the doctor detects diseases. Cod liver oil, Parrish's Food and Thyroid Tablets help to repair some of the ravages caused by rickets and mal-nutrition.

The Children's House, Ealing Road, Bow, London, E 3

This indoor nursery school at Bow is not only doing a large amount of most necessary work among the poor children of the district, but it is coming into very close contact with the lives of the parents. The children's homes are always open to the school workers, and the parents go in and out of the Children's House as they wish. Visitors from many countries come to see the work, and to exchange ideas, living actually in the House for the length of their stay. The House has also started a course of study classes for the students and helpers, where educational methods and experiments, hygiene, the relationship of the child to the State, practical politics, economics, and some of the wider issues of life are studied. The Children's House is a nursery school of the newest and most interesting type.

Sun Babies' Home, Norris Street, Hoxton, London, N 1

Hoxton! Half-open shelters, painted orange, round a very green lawn! At one end, before the main building, a flower bed with plants for study, at the other a gaily paved play-place with ladders that may

be climbed. The day nursery babies are in their cots or round their kidney-shaped little tables, the school children (4 and 5 years), in orange and blue overalls, are busy with Montessori apparatus or with toys.

Over (but never above) the day nursery is matron, helped in complete liaison by the nursery school teacher (trained in Australia), who is assistant matron and lives in with the nurses. Matron needs to be supremely human and yet super-human. She is responsible for the health and training of fifty odd people from 0 to 5 years old and of a staff of 17, some of whom are probationers whom she trains. She is also storekeeper, accountant, secretary, administrator of violet rays, friend and adviser to mothers, hostess to many visitors, idealist and practical business woman!

The nursery is a training centre for nurses, the course being two years, and there is now a psycho-therapist on its committee. Systematic psychological and physiological records of the children are kept.

Lower Holloway Nursery, Liverpool Road, London, N

This nursery school is the offshoot of the original day nursery which still flourishes in the same house. The school came into being when a trained teacher offered her services to the nursery. This teacher lectures at the Norland Institute, and two students from the Institute assist her at the school.

With music and stories and talk and all kinds of free occupation there is "work" for every toddler. "Work is what somebody has to do to keep the place clean and neat." The toddlers know it is their place, and so are always happy when it is their turn to sweep and dust. The day we called the watchword was "Light," and many were busy polishing brass and panes and everything polishable and washing everything washable in a room made gay with yellow and white flowers.

Day Nursery and Nursery School, Wapping, London, E

Here Matron and nurses live, and the babies, the toddlers and their nursery teacher come daily to a beautiful Georgian house overlooking the Thames. The number of children both in the day nursery and nursery school is smaller than could be accommodated. The teacher was trained at the Rachel McMillan Baby Camp, and her salary is provided by the voluntary committee in charge of the nursery.

A "minor ailments" clinic is held in the same building.

Somers Town Nursery School, 18, Crowndale Road, London, N W 1

This is one of the two nursery schools (Notting Hill Nursery School, Stoneleigh Street, W is the other) founded by the Froebel Society, and although the State contributes two-thirds of its cost, the balance is provided by the Froebel Institute. Once a year the children are taken to the country to a bungalow of their own. Each child is asked to pay £1 for this holiday, and this they manage to do by bringing 1d each day during the whole year. There is vitreous glass in the school windows and all possible time is spent in the open air. The children are not divided into toddlers of two to three and school children of from four to five years, all ages are together.

The Liverpool School of Mothercraft and Children's Hotel, Wavertree, Liverpool

A school such as this comes under no educational heading in this country up to the present. In our curriculum we hold three main objects in focus. The most necessary and important of these is the experience to be gained by the student. The course of training extends over a period of eight months and is intensive. During this period the student nurse has ample opportunity for studying the growing and enquiring minds of the children under her care, whereby she is able to acquire some practical solution to the many daily difficulties which arise in the nursery. She learns to meet those difficulties with wisdom and understanding and to realize that they are not difficulties merely to be overcome but problems to be understood first and then solved. Every nurse student in the course of her experience writes her own text book giving illustrations from her own experiences and observation. For those occupied with little children a psychology which is above all a living science is needed. The mental and physical care must both be studied and the relationship of the one to the other. Hitherto we have been satisfied to take the disposition and temperament of a child for granted in a way we should never dream in connection with his physical condition. If we know a child to have a physical weakness we give it the best environment to effect a cure and secure the best advice. The attitude of confidence based on knowledge which is so common in physical disabilities is still only felt by very few when dealing with the moral weakness of children. Heredity is still spoken of as a sufficient and final excuse by the large majority. In dealing with little children and their misdeeds, punishment can be almost entirely ruled out, as such a measure cannot aid that which is already weak. We have to teach our students to look upon childish naughtiness in the same light as physical weakness, to cultivate a desire to help and recognize the need for a greater understanding.

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The Nursery School. By Margaret McMillan (Dent).

The Life of Rachel McMillan. By Margaret McMillan (Dent).

The Open-Air Nursery School. By E. Stevinson (Dent).

Pre-School Education (a Historical and Critical Study) By I. Forest (MacMillan). (This is a useful book covering developments on the Continent, in England and in America.)

ASSOCIATIONS

The Nursery School Association. Hon. Secretary, Miss Grace Owen, The Firs, Appleton le Moors, Yorks.

The National Society of Day Nurseries, 117, Piccadilly, London, W.

Organised Colour in Primary Classes

A Rainbow Room for the Babies

By E. M. Christie

Hill (L.C.C.) Infants' School, Camberwell, London)

You have heard the Treasure legend, told in the days of old,
How either end of a rainbow rests in a pot of gold?

A scientific and primary reason for using colour in education lies in the fact that the eyesight of young children is less liable to overstrain when directed to coloured objects. A second associates the charm of colour with all the beginnings of school knowledge. It forms the first faint tracks that are to become serviceable brainroads, the first assemblies of similarities that will become future association groups. The recognition of colour in an organised associative form aids considerably in presenting first facts and in preparing young, backward or dull children for reading and number. It assists them to concentrate and to memorise, to determine position, size and form; to judge sound and weight.

Apparatus*

An apparatus evolved from this basis attracts, stimulates the imagination, and is psychological and progressive. It supplies material to meet the urge of youth towards movement, repetition and achievement. Early impressions being proverbially lasting, it behoves us to make school memories happy ones, to present first lessons, especially, through media that are attractive, forceful, beautiful. In devising an apparatus to meet these many requirements we have applied knowledge gleaned in many places, through many years, with the help of many children, we have profited by many "trys." In making our apparatus another potent charm has been employed the human attributes that dolls and toys possess for young children. This factor has been used in such a way as to make the sets of rainbow dolls, large or small, the dominating exponents of the scheme, the rulers of the rainbow apparatus. They can speedily lure new-comers to observation, conversation, movement and occupation. For tiny tots they charm away the all-alone feeling by awakening their immediate interest.

The picture in the April *New Era* serves to show something of the apparatus, of the many and varied treasures of our rainbow room. There you can see the dolls on ledge and shelf, on boards and tables. Each of the large painted, wooden, flat people directs where her possessions are to be placed, be they boxes, boards, letters, or numbers. The doll people rule firmly, insisting on their homes being respected, on their possessions (and other folks') being kindly and courteously treated. They say a place for everything and everything in its place. Any child failing to note this has to be reminded of the rule. "Red things must be returned to red dolls," "blue to blue," and so on. These autocrats, dressed in red, yellow, orange, green, blue, and purple, pink, white and brown, show their activities in every association,

be it the way to sound or letter or word, or the value of a line of beads, or of a coloured plate.

The apparatus they dominate is practically indestructible, being fashioned mainly of wood and tin. It is easily cleaned and re-decorated, quickly distributed and stored, it provides each child with tools for personal use, as well as others for general purposes. It has the added merit of avoiding the waste of energy and time that quickly spoilt media present to young children.

Phonetic Boards

Let us consider the value of the phonetic boards. Large (12 x 10), medium (8 x 6), or small (6 x 5), they have a rigid arrangement for colour spaces and letters. Everyone recognises here the rule about places for things. After a few first adventures here and there on the board, tablets, coloured and printed to correspond, are gradually sorted out, colour on colour, form on form. At this stage the element of speed steps in, the desire to combine various colours, to unite sounds with names. To meet this want there are square two-inch tablets, on which a picture is painted at the top, its name in coloured letters beneath. Eager seekers take their box of letters from their work box, tablets from teacher's box and set to work to match as many picture words as time and table space permit.

The phonetic boards are arranged with rigid regard to position of colour carpets, of letter forms. The matchers waste no time deciding where red sound tablets go. Each board, divided into four columns, has for its first a wide red space where red doll Isabelle keeps her busy, important, stretch-mouth vowels. On a pink-red step, at the bottom, Winifred lays her double-stretch W. The second column, yellow (always yellow at the top for beginner's guidance), takes in small Freda's bite-lip-blow sounds. Below, Susy Orange keeps push-tongue-up-and-blow, shut-teeth-blow, and double-sound-x, kiss-blow. In blue room underneath, Betty has the press-lips. The third column is green for Gerie's queer back-and-up-in-the-throat folk, whilst on the steps below Hilda places gently-breathe, often a silent friend. The fourth column holds Lucy Lalac's push-tongue-tips people. On each carpet the matcher lays a one-inch coloured tablet of same letter-form. For the big boards the dolls keep boxes of two-inch letter tablets. Later boards include easy phonograms.

Number

In number plays the dolls are still rulers, and are associated with flying birds, number lane, number ladies, bead frames, number tablets, spinning-boards, etc. The birds fly from a line in front of number lane. Each carries a string of beads in his beak to match his lady's frock and to match the number of

(Continued on page 114)

* Obtainable from Charles and Sons, Ltd., 10, Paternoster Square, London, E.C.4

WOODCUTS BY MEMBERS OF BEMBRIDGE SCHOOL



AT THE WHARF SIDE
J BRANDON-JONES



THE HAY WAGGON

ADRIAN BEACH



THE CART BARN

ADRIAN BEACH



ODYSSEUS AND THE CYCLOPS

Tableau from the Homer Play, 'THE RETURN OF ODYSSEUS,' as performed by the Holt Secondary School, Liverpool

INTERNATIONAL NOTES

International Students' Exchange

For the past two years the German League for the Rights of Man has been actively promoting exchange visits between young boys and girls of Germany and France. In Berlin and Paris committees have been formed for the purpose of this exchange service. Members of the German Committee are Prof. Ludwig Quidde, the recent winner of the Nobel prize, Count Kessler and the Rev. D. Luz Siegmund-Schulze and others. On the French Committee is M. Buisson, also a winner of the Nobel prize.

In 1927, 115 French pupils were placed in German families and the same number of Germans were placed in French families. In most cases the exchange was arranged so that the German child spent a month with a French friend and then returned to Germany, where both children spent another month together.

Children of all social classes took part in the exchange and among them were children of French military officers.

It is desirable that similar exchanges should be made between English and German children. Individuals, schools or associations interested in this work should apply to Frau Helene Leroy, Landfriedstr. 8, Heidelberg, Germany.

International Congress of Applied Psychology, 12th to 15th October, 1928, Paris

Under the auspices of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations the above conference will be held in October, 1928. Secretary, M. P. Masson-Oursel, 35, Rue Boissy-d'Anglais, Paris, 8e.

The World Federation of Education Associations

will hold its next conference at Geneva from 25th July to 4th August, 1929. The date of the Follow-

up conference in Denmark, from 8th to 22nd August, has been carefully arranged so that attendance at both conferences will be possible. A special party will be organised to travel from Geneva to Denmark.

International Commission on Didactic Material

In September, 1927, a commission was established, in connection with the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, and the Palais Mondial, Brussels, for the scientific study of didactic material. A preliminary report, in the form of an eight-page pamphlet, has been prepared by M. Paul Oulet and Mlle. A. Oderfeld, and can be obtained from the Union des Associations Internationales, Palais Mondial, Brussels (Parc du Cinquentaenaire). In April a conference on didactic material was held under the same auspices in Brussels. A report is to be issued.

International Advertising for Schools

English and American schools wishing to increase the number of their pupils and to foster internationalism would do well to advertise in the German and French magazines affiliated to the *New Era*. Sample copies can be obtained from the *New Era* office or direct from Dr. Karl Wilker, Kohlgraben, bei Vacha, Rhon, Germany, and Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, Chemin Peschier, 10, Champel, Geneva. The advertising rates are approx. £4 (\$20) per page and pro rata.

The Open Road

is a travel agency especially concerned with the needs of teachers and students. It undertakes to arrange special programmes of travel in Europe and to provide escort for any group of teachers, numbering from twelve upwards. The Open Road, 2, West 46th Street, New York City.

NOTES FROM ENGLAND

Conference of New Ideals in Education

About 120 members of the Conference of New Ideals in Education spent a delightful week at Westminster College, Cambridge, from April 9 to 14. Among those present were Mr. Edmond Holmes, Mrs. Millicent Mackenzie, Miss Alice Woods, Miss Belle Rennie, Miss Margaret Drummond and Dr. Jessie White.

There was not a single paper which could not be called conspicuously good, and the topics were various and inspiring. Comparisons are always odious, but Mr. Roger Raven's lecture on *The Boy and Religion* must be singled out for special notice by reason of its broad outlook and deep philosophical insight, while Mr. Arnold Freeman on *The Spiritual Values in Education*, Dr. Hadfield on *Healthy-mindedness*, and Mr. Ronald Gurner on *Bridging the Gulf Between Secondary and Public Schools* provided much matter for serious thought. Delightful accounts by Miss Mary Thomson of village school work in Suffolk, by Mr. J. W. Wells and Mr. Faithfull of school journeys and walking tours vied in interest with Mrs. Mackenzie's paper on *Comenius* and Mr. H. Chaturvedi's on *Tagore's Idea of Education*.

The papers read will be published in *The New Ideals Quarterly* magazine, from the July number onwards. Published by B. Blackwell, Oxford, 4/6 per year.

Dr. O'Brien Harris,

who has done so much for the cause of the New Education at the Howard School, Clapton, has retired after many years of arduous work. We send her our good wishes and hope that in her retirement she will continue to work with us.

The vacant post has been filled by Miss Ruth Fletcher, who hopes to retain the Howard Plan as the basis of the school organisation.

The Perse School, Cambridge

Mr. Hubert A. Wootton, Headmaster of Kingswood School, Bath, has been appointed Headmaster of the Perse School, and will take up his duties in September. Mr. Wootton was educated at Nottingham High School and Clare College, where he obtained a scholarship in 1902. He was formerly chief science master at Westminster School.

Classes Over 50

Figures supplied by Lord Eustace Percy in reply to questions in the House of Commons reveal that there has been an increase in large classes during the past year, and that there is a total of 20,212 classes with more than 50 on the roll, approximately 13 per cent of the total number of classes in England and Wales.

The Children's Theatre

was opened in August, 1927, at 18, Endell Street, London, for the purpose of providing an entertainment suitable for young people.

The performances are given daily at 5.45, a time that permits West End artists to appear in the cast. The programmes consist of folk songs, sea chanteys, mime, and short plays written especially for the theatre.

The prices range from 3d to 5/9, and all seats are bookable in advance (Chancery 7944).

The management appeal to those interested in the venture to co-operate. Particulars can be had on application to the Secretary.

Cinema Programmes for Children

Mr. S. Bernstein, who directs a number of London cinemas, has initiated a scheme for providing films for children on Saturday mornings (tickets 3d), the first series being shown at the Empire Theatre, Willesden. We hope that this step will be followed by managers all over the country. Particulars of the cinemas in which these films will be shown can be obtained from the Secretary, Children's Film Section, Bernstein Theatres, 197, Wardour Street, London, W.1.

Freobel Society Summer School

will be held at Queenwood, Eastbourne, August 1st-22nd. Queenwood is situated on the lower slopes of Beachy Head, with an uninterrupted view of the sea and downs. Among the lecturers are—Prof. G. Dehlsle Burns, M.A., Mr. W. Platt, Miss E. R. Murray, formerly Vice-Principal of the Mana Grey Training College. The Course includes "Principles and Methods of Education," "Stories and the Three R's," "The Production of School

Plays," "Handwork for Young Children" (with an elementary course in colour and design related to school handwork), Country Dances, and Eurhythmic. The Secretary, The Froebel Society, 4, Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C.1

World Day for Animals

The two reasons why October 4th is particularly appropriate for this celebration are (a) because it is the day dedicated to St. Francis of Assisi, and (b) because it is well removed from the Annual "Weeks" which are held in April and May in America and the British Isles respectively. Suggestions for making the World Day of service are invited. The Secretary, 47, Hamilton Road, Highbury, London, N. 5

The Unmusical Child

Mrs. Fleming Williams has held a course of lecture-classes at the Fellowship's offices in London, and another class will be held in the autumn if there are sufficient entries. The course is planned to give practical help to teachers and parents who encounter psychological and other difficulties in children in relation to music. Interested readers should apply to the Secretary, N.E.F., 11, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

List of Schools in England

A list of Schools (Private and State Elementary and Secondary) that are doing interesting work of one kind or another has been prepared by the Fellowship and can be had from the Headquarters Office, price 6d.

Frensham Heights, Rowledge, nr. Farnham, Surrey

Mr. Paul Roberts, M.A. (Oxon.), has been appointed Principal of Frensham Heights, as from September, 1928. Mr. and Mrs. Roberts have been associated for many years with St. George's, Harpenden, the well-known co-education pioneer school, first as heads of the Junior school and subsequently of the Middle school. Mrs. Ensor and Miss Isabel King will remain on the Board of Directors and will continue their interest in the School.

FELLOWSHIP NEWS.

Argentine.—Application for affiliation to the Fellowship has been received from the Argentine. A strong committee has been established under the presidency of Dr. José Rezzano, ex-Inspector-General of Primary Schools of Buenos Aires and Professor of the Philosophy of Education at the University of La Plata. The committee numbers among its members Sr. E. Fernández Alonso, Inspector-General of Primary Schools, Buenos Aires, Sr. C. Guillén de Rezzano, Directress of the Training College for Teachers, Buenos Aires, and Dr. Salvador Aloise, President of the School Council, Buenos Aires. Sr. Luis Arena is secretary to the committee. The magazine published by this group of pioneers, *La Obra*, with its supplement *Nueva Era*, has already been provisionally affiliated to the Fellowship.

Poland.—A section of the Fellowship has been formed in Poland and will constitute a federation of teachers and educational associations, and of progressive schools, in addition to the organisation of

individual members into a strong working body for New Education. Among the committee are—Mme. H. Radlinska (Professor of Education at the University Libre), Mme. Z. Iwaszkiewicz (Association of Secondary and High School Professors), Mr. S. Szuman (University of Poznan), and Mr. L. Zapolski (Inspector of Primary Education). Communications should be directed to Mme. H. Radlinska, Smadreckich, 8, 111 p, Warsaw.

The Association d'Adhérents de l'Éducation Moderne has affiliated as a group to the Fellowship, and has recently issued a magazine *Wychowanie Nowocześnie* (Modern Education) under the editorship of Mr. Jan Hallman, rue Nowogrodzka 21, Warsaw.

Switzerland.—A Swiss Section of the Fellowship has been formed with Herr H. Tobler as Chairman and Signora M. Boschetti-Alberti and Dr. Adolphe Fernère as members of the executive committee. Communications should be directed to Herr H. Tobler, Hof-Oberkirch, Kaltbrunn, St. Gall.

Denmark.—We welcome the first number, pub-

lished in February, of a "New Education" magazine for Denmark, *Den Frie Skole*, edited by our Danish colleague, Dr S. Nasgaard, and published at Solvgade 10, Copenhagen K., Central 340

Roumania.—A group has been formed in Roumania under Mme Marie Dobre, Professor at the Ecole Normale de Jeunes Filles, Râmnicul Vâlcea, Roumania. Mr J. Nicușanu, editor of *Pentru Inima Copilor* (For the Heart of the Children), has applied for the affiliation of his magazine to the Fellowship

Jugo-Slavia.—Mr. Y Yovanovitch, President of the Association of Friends of the New Schools, has applied for the affiliation to the Fellowship of his group and his magazine, *Radna Skola*

India.—The Indian Section is becoming increasingly active, and has drawn together a strong working committee to carry forward the work in provincial areas. Swami Ramachandra, one of the members of the Committee, edits an English monthly magazine, *Brahmacharya*, devoted to the education of Indian youth. He is also starting an experimental school in Bangalore which will combine the educational systems of East and West

Mr Thaker at the Sharada Mandir, Ahmedabad, has a Montessori class for younger children and primary and secondary classes up to Matriculation standard. There are 52 children in the school of which 20 are boarders

Mr. Agarwala, working in the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, has established Fellowship groups in several large towns. He has also prepared a number of Intelligence Tests and is experimenting with them among the children of various schools.

The Andhra Research University, which was started a few years ago under the patronage of His Highness the Maharajah of Vizianagram, is popularising the New Education among all classes of the people

In Bengal the new ideals are finding a home. In addition to Santiniketan, directed by Sir Rabindranath Tagore, another institution has been started in Pabna to carry on similar work, namely, Tapovan, of which the Principal is Prof. B. C. Nath

In the Punjab, Babu Sushadhar Banerjee, formerly of the Major Kotla College, is planning to found, under the auspices of the Fellowship, a "New Education High School" at Benares

A new school for younger children has been started in Allahabad (Krishnashram, Knox Road). The school is on the banks of the Ganges and within easy distance of the University. The promoters desire to make the fullest possible use of the educational experience of past and present in developing methods of teaching which may best suit the Indian temperament

Experimental and Research Board

The All India Federation of Teachers' Associations has established an Experimental and Research Board which is collecting accounts of every type of educational experiment being conducted in India. Convenor Mr. M. L. Agarwala, B Ed., Training College, 40, Allenganj, Allahabad

Dr. Albert Einstein,

whose support of the New Education in Germany we value so highly, has now taken up work at a University in Palestine

U.S.A.

During our Editor's visit to the States a New Education Fellowship Advisory Committee for the Denmark Conference was founded under the Chairmanship of Dr Harold Rugg, Lincoln School of Teachers' College, New York City. Professor W. Heard Kilpatrick has consented to become the President of the Fellowship in America

BOOK REVIEWS

Creative Music in the Home. By SATIS N. COLEMAN (Music Investigator, The Lincoln School of Teachers' College). Lewis E. Myers and Co., New York City.

This is a book which should be in the hands of all who are interested in the musical education of children, and, moreover, it should be in the hands of the children themselves, for it is written for them

In some twenty-five delightful chapters we are shown the origins of primitive music and how, by degrees, the modern symphony orchestra has been evolved from these, along with musical notation and the great wealth of musical composition

With these fascinating stories of the growth of musical art are numerous suggestions and instructions for the making of primitive instruments from materials which the average school or home can easily provide. And having made an instrument, what more natural than that the child should wish to discover "how it works"! So, step by step, he is introduced to rhythm and tonality and the creation of his own melodies, and gradually led to an understanding of the laws underlying art, such

as unity, balance, contrast, etc., which give us phrase and form in music

The educational value of this book lies in the fact that it is based on sound psychological laws. The study of music is correlated to creative handwork, the simple science of sound, the story of the development of mankind, and so on, and in this way is related to life, and not kept in a watertight compartment as an accomplishment for the gifted few.

The well-chosen musical examples give the child ample experience in appreciating each new item of knowledge, *musically* as well as intellectually. Throughout the book, "*knowing*" and "*doing*" are co-ordinated, and the child is encouraged to experiment and to discover things for himself

Mrs Coleman concludes with an appeal for "ensemble" playing in the home, and shows how parents and children, even the very young members of the family, may derive much pleasure and benefit from the home orchestra.

The book is extensively and admirably illustrated, and provides most interesting and informative reading for both young and old

M. A. C.

Talks to Parents and Teachers. By HOMER LANE
5/- net.

Homer Lane and the Little Commonwealth. By
E. T. BAZELEY. 7/6 net. Both published by
George Allen and Unwin, London.

Homer Lane was a genius. The statement can be questioned, but the lucky ones who used to attend his lectures on child psychology have no doubt about the question. The man's intuition was uncanny. You had only to bring a neurotic or a delinquent child to Lane and he did the right thing. The three stories at the end of the "Talks" are sufficient to place Lane among the wonder-workers of the world.

The "Talks" are mostly compounded of notes taken at lectures, and they in some measure suffer from their being second-hand. But the Rev. H. H. Symonds has edited these notes excellently. Miss Bazeley's book is of interest. For my part I wish she had given more about Lane's treatment of his pupils and less of external descriptions of events.

Of the introductions to the books I think that the Bishop of Liverpool's introduction to the "Talks" is unwise, for it concentrates one's attention on the man who was called a charlatan at Bow Street, whereas the text of the book takes one's interest to the man's genius. Lord Lytton's preface to Miss Bazeley's book is much happier and more understanding.

Homer Lane began as a Freudian. During his Little Commonwealth days he was talking Freudianism. But he felt that Freudianism was not entirely satisfying. To him it equivocated on the question of Original Sin. "The child is born neither good nor bad, it is born with a potentiality of good or evil," Lane rejected this. "The child is born good," he said. "There is no original sin." And to this end he was convinced that every crime is a good act in disguise. Again, he could not be satisfied with Freud's Sex Theory. The Oedipus Complex theory did not go deep enough for him. The kernel of Lane's psychology was shown in the story he told at many lectures, the story of the baby and his hand. The baby sees his hand moving. Soon he gathers that he can move the object. He wants to know more, and as his only method of appreciation then is by mouth he strives to get the hand to his mouth. The task is difficult, and the child changes his motive. At first he wanted to have his hand in his mouth, now he wants the interest in getting it there. He tries and fails. He cries. Mother, wrongly diagnosing the situation, puts the hand to his mouth. He yells more than ever, for mother has spoiled his great game of doing. The situation is repeated all through infancy, mother continually interferes with his creative (spiritual) activities. She offers the child possession instead of creation. The soul-destroying dummy is given to keep him quiet. The result is an interest in having instead of doing. The child becomes fixed on mother and craves security and cuddling. Lane did not say so but I think that Oedipus Complex from this viewpoint becomes a conflict between father and mother, father symbolising activity and creation; mother symbolising security and possession. The hate of father would thus be the hate of creation that mother gave the child. The boy does not want to slay father in order to possess mother; he wants to slay creative reality so that he may have possessive happiness.

And in the sexual sphere creation degenerates into Libido, for the dummy attitude of the mother gives to the child an exaggerated feeling for the purely sensual. Lane used to point out that man was the only animal that uses sex for pleasure, and he was right in tracing the cause to mother's emphasis on sensual possession. Here he went beyond the Oedipus Complex. He went deeper.

Another example of Lane's deep intuition is shown in his definition of the Personal and Impersonal Unconscious. The child is born with an Impersonal Unconscious, that is one that is common to all humans. One can call it the Life Force. But soon the child is taught standards of behaviour, and he then forms a new Unconscious, the Personal Unconscious or Conscience. This is the voice of parents and teachers. The original voice was the voice of God, and Lane rightly called the voice of moral education the voice of the Devil. He showed that in our every act we try to satisfy both voices, and in auto-eroticism the child satisfies the second voice (moral instruction the Devil) by repenting. This was a very important discovery. Personally I find the conflict between the two voices in every difficult child, and the cure simply means the abolition of the conscience the child acquired from without.

Lane had an infinite faith in the power of love. As Lord Lytton says, love to Lane had the meaning of "being on the side of, approving." Thus in his treatments he allowed no conventions to stand in his way. At the Commonwealth he joined in window-breaking. With an anal-erotic boy he joined in the boy's fun. I remember his telling how he struck a man patient. Lane had on his mantelpiece a bronze lion. One day a patient said abruptly: "I'd like to smash that lion." Lane got up and struck him. By expressing a wish to destroy the lion he showed that he wanted to kill the savage animal in himself, that is, he wanted to love. Lane's blow roused the man's savage hate, a hate which he had to express. By making the hate conscious Lane was able to show the man what he was doing. The story given in both the above books, that of the dish-smashing boy, is a fine example of the practical method of Lane as psychologist. Another (not given) is the story of the boy who ran away. Lane followed him and gave him a pound. "Take the train home, don't walk," he said. Such methods were surely those of a man a long way ahead of his times.

It is to be hoped that Symonds will continue to edit the notes left by Lane. I have never tried to prophesy, but I do so now. I prophesy that posterity will recognise in Homer Lane the most brilliant psychologist of our age. A. S. NEILL.

The Mind of the Growing Child. By VISCOUNTESS
ERLEIGH, with preface by SIR JAMES CRICHTON
BROWNE. 5/- net. London, The Scientific
Press, Faber and Gwyer Ltd.

This is a series of lectures given by doctors and others to "educated mothers" on behalf of the National Society of Day Nurseries. The subjects were chosen by the mothers, so that the topics are of practical value.

The first five years of life are the most potent of any as regards instruction, and the active element surrounding these years is essentially love.

The range of subjects dealt with is wide, interest-

ing and informative. From "Heredity" to "Family Discipline," "Temperament" to "Tradition," "Daydreams" to "Sunlight," and from "Children's Books" to the "Backward Child," all these are dealt with in a clear, readable and impressive style. Each chapter is vitally interesting, and whether read by parent or teacher, nurse or administrator cannot but be beneficial. Where all is so exceptionally good, it is difficult to select, but perhaps the chapter on "The Dangers of Tradition in the Nursery" is of outstanding merit and usefulness. All parents and teachers of the young should get this book.

J. E. T. S.

Youth (a Book for Two Generations). By ELIZABETH SLOAN CHESSE. Methuen, 2/6.

This is the latest of a series of little books by Dr. Elizabeth Sloan Chesser. The various misunderstandings, peculiar difficulties and unhappiness of youth and middle-age are shown, and nowhere blamed (as for example "to spit in anger at an adversary is at least natural at seven years") but the underlying and often unrealised causes are revealed and practical advice is offered as to how both generations may come to understand each other and build positive and satisfactory relationships. The advice is not too profound so as to worry the uninformed but enquiring mind, and gives the impression that everything Dr Sloan Chesser says is the wisdom that is the fruit of her own experience as a doctor and a woman.

She implies that perfect mental health and poise will follow *ipso facto* upon perfect physical functioning (though without committing herself to definite doctrines of physiological psychology or Behaviourism).

The chapter headings indicate the inter-dependence of Health and Character, "Problems of Education," "Health and Adolescence," "When Youth is Unhappy," "Food in Adolescence," following successively.

Dr Sloan Chesser emphasises the need for guiding and sublimating emotional energy in youth. "Love and work are the fundamental needs of every human being." She shows how the "love instinct" may be directed creatively and socially from babyhood to parenthood, but although "love is the greatest thing, it is not the only one," and she suggests how psychology may help parent or teacher to guide youth in discovering its natural bent and so fulfil itself in congenial work. A bibliography would have added to the usefulness of this little book.

M. T. S.

The Psychology of Youth, a new edition of Youth and the Race. By EDGAR JAMES SWIFT (Head of the Department of Psychology in Washington University, St Louis, U.S.A.) Charles Scribner's Sons, 10/6.

After the age of ten Professor Swift claims, comes the time for the beginning of self-control based on social and ethical motives. He makes good this claim in reviewing escapades by boys and girls of ages mostly between ten and fifteen—escapades ranging from "playing Indian" and making caves and shelters to highway robbery and attempted train-wrecking with a view to plundering the dead and injured.

In children, he insists, "primitive impulses are still rampant. The sins for which Adam received

the blame were the virtues of primitive man. Recognition of this has revolutionised moral training. The devil is no longer driven out of children with the whip, but he is given opportunity for exercising his satanic ingenuity in ways that make for growth in social virtues."

It would be difficult to express more succinctly the idea underlying the New Education. Yet this book, of which the purpose is to help parents to understand their children, contains a great deal of discursive matter—from the part played by slums in the fomentation of crime to the enlightened treatment of criminals when matured and caught. The author's examples are chiefly drawn from the rougher classes—from newsboys and the like, sons of parents who cannot or will not allow their children to stay at school a day longer than the law requires, parents who themselves need educating, but whom, unfortunately, this book will never reach.

Teachers already acquainted with new educational methods will find an interest in the modern instances which show the success of these methods, though without breaking fresh ground.

The Reproduction of Life in Nature and Man. By A. J. COCKINS, F.R.C.S., M.B., B.S. Illustrated 10/6 net. London, Baillière, Tindall and Cox.

This is a scientific yet not too technical presentation of the subject, and supplies the necessary knowledge which parents can safely pass on to boys and girls in their teens. It deals with "Life and the Human Body," "Growth and Reproduction," "Plant Reproduction," "Animal Reproduction," and "Human Reproduction," and one can see from the careful grading of these sections that the subject is dealt with in the right perspective and in a healthy manner throughout. The two concluding chapters on "Puberty and Adolescence" and "Instinct and Love" will be appreciated by teachers and others who are in touch with young people of adolescent age. It is not a "sex" book in the usual sense of the word, and yet it will give teachers and parents, and also ministers of religion and social workers, those facts concerning the origin of life which will enable them to answer children's questions on the subject adequately and intelligently. It is not too advanced to place in the hands of young people of sixteen and upwards, and is calculated to give them a healthy view of this important phase of life. Such knowledge is a powerful safeguard and we cordially recommend this book to all in authority, as well as to the young people themselves.

J. E. T. S.

The Struggles of Male Adolescence. By C. STANFORD READ, M.D. Allen and Unwin, 7/6.

The author does not claim to give any original views or arguments on this most important subject, but he gives a clear and adequate exposition of the problems which confront the growing boy, and of the psychological causes and effects of many of his difficulties.

Chapters are devoted to the question of heredity versus environment in the making of character (emphasising the importance of the latter, while not minimising the value of the former—but not allowing for the possibility that a child is already an individual, apart from these other factors, at birth);

to the problems and responsibilities of parents, both in their relationship to the child and to the "atmosphere" they make round it by their own relations, to morbidity and insanity in adolescents and young adults, to delinquency and crime, to vocational guidance, etc.

This is a useful book to one who knows something of psychology, although it is written from a Freudian standpoint, rather to the neglect of the views of Jung and Adler, who come in for very little discussion. This perhaps gives something of a bias to the points brought forward. Nevertheless, in a work of small compass, it might be difficult to preserve clarity while covering so wide a field as this would involve.

L. J. B.

Child Psychology and Religious Education. By DOROTHY F. WILSON. Student Christian Movement, 4/- (in paper cover, 2/6 net)

If you have never read a book on Child Psychology or Religious Education you could not do better than read this one. It will give the student a wonderfully wide résumé of the opinions of all kinds of writers on the subject. The author has evidently read widely. Omitting the closing chapter the book contains only 21 pages on which there is no quotation. The book does not voice the author's view nearly so much as it represents the best writers' view on the general subject. This may be all to the good, and for those whose reading time is limited the book is of considerable value. The whole subject is treated from the modern point of view. The fallacies of the old doctrines of "Total Depravity" and "Original Sin" are laid bare, this to the modernist is welcome.

The subject of Child Psychology is getting to be too big and broad to be discussed in any single book. The author would have been well advised to concentrate on some phase of Religious Education. The book is interesting reading, but is academical and somewhat scrappy.

The Liberation of Mankind. By HENDRIK VAN LOON. Harrap, 7/6

The Liberation of Mankind is a stimulating and tolerant history of intolerance. Despite vivid pen and ink illustrations of the burning of books, etc., Mr Van Loon makes one sympathise, in his opening chapters, with the savage who disposes summarily of the critics of his Medicine Man. Next come chapters on the tolerance of Greece and Rome, whose gods were essentially reasonable and not too fussy so long as a few public decencies were observed. Mr Van Loon then traces the success of Christianity in undermining the Roman Empire, explaining it sympathetically but without reference to supernatural powers. Finally come Constantine and the alliance between Church and State. In a book on intolerance the Inquisition must of course appear. Mr Van Loon writes of it with hatred, but with sympathy for its tools as well as its victims. The dignity of the individual man is nearer re-establishment when the Church loses her State support, and hence her command of State agencies for repression. The Renaissance and Reformation were disappointing. Hopes outran realities. But the Renaissance stirred men's minds to question, and the Reformation, though setting up an infallible Book and many prison houses for the human spirit,

yet broke the universality of an infallible Church, and gradually, between the little intolences, individual thinkers could poke up their heads. The rest of the book consists of sketches, interesting but somewhat thin, of various thinkers. There is throughout an almost complete lack of reference to sources of facts, but the book achieves its end, for the reader, especially the student or elder school boy or girl for whom it is written, will probably put it down thanking his stars that he is not even as these ancients, but quite aware that, unless he keeps his eyes open, the Devil of Intolerance will have him too, because its great cause, Fear, still lives.

M. C. TURNER.

Handicraft Pottery. By HENRY and DENISE WREN Pitman, 12/6

This book provides a wealth of inspiration and practical advice for those who are desirous of acquiring the potter's craft for pleasure or profit, or both. It meets the requirements of either the artist choosing clay as his medium or of the child commencing his first handicraft.

The notes on equipment are good. Just what to have is a problem which nothing but experience can solve. Nothing leaves one with quite such a foolish feeling as to be left with a lump of clay and told to "keep it damp." One's imagination refuses to function and one finds oneself looking at it and wondering How? and When? It is just in such small and apparently insignificant details that the Wrens' book is so helpful. Reference to the text and the well-chosen illustrations will immediately dispel the beginners' perplexity.

The reference to coiled and slab pots with the instructions for their making remind us how ancient is the potter's craft. Their decoration reminds us of the age-long urge towards beauty as well as utility.

The chapter on tiles, Mosaic, and incised lettering is exceedingly interesting, as so little is known of the two latter and so few examples are being produced.

As an example of "throwing," knob design, and the "modelled feeling" in handles, the porridge dish on p. 122 is entirely satisfying. The ultimates of the hand potter's art are achieved.

In the chapters on glazing and firing there come to light the difficulties—and pleasures—connected with these operations. The illustration on p. 135 suggests that the difficulties are by no means insuperable.

The open kiln on the charming cover invites one to investigate the contents of this very excellent book.

A. M. BRAITHWAITE

The Next Step in National Education (being the Report of a Committee of Seven Educational Experts) University of London Press, 3/6

This valuable book, armed with useful and important statistics, ably summarises the views of the forward party in National Education. Its sponsors are Lord Haldane, Messrs. R. Choimeley, P. Alden, F. Goldstone, A. Mansbridge, Percy Nunn and Sir Benjamin Gott. One need only say of it that it should be read by everybody interested in its subject. The present, past and future of British Education are here finely summarised and most ably discussed. I wish to quote from page 85, regarding

"A particularly unscrupulous campaign by certain newspapers" against day continuation schools. "One statement alone, uncontradicted in the papers that gave it currency, was that they involved the imposition of a rate of 1s 4d. in the pound. The actual rate was 1½d." One can only comment that there should be some power to punish papers capable of such disgusting mendacity!

W PLATT.

America. By HENDRIK VAN LOON. Harrap, 10/6

The subject matter of this book bears close resemblance to its illustrations—entertaining, vivid, arresting, and boldly impatient of that laborious mass of detail upon which history is built. It is intended for the young, who will presumably be less irritated by the short sentence paragraphs than the adult reader. Its usefulness will be diminished by a certain obliquity of method which ignores chronology and constantly returns upon its tracks—a habit which causes children annoyance and confusion. But, in spite of this, the book is eminently welcome. It covers the whole ground of American civilisation with the breadth of treatment and freshness of vision possible only to the world historian, and, if it contains many controvertible generalisations, these are at least of the kind calculated to stimulate interest and inquiry. The emphasis on the economic basis and its interconnection with contemporary ideology is excellent. The book is worth possessing for the illustrations to the chapter on "The Rule of Things" alone.

V A H

The Inner World of Childhood. By FRANCES G. WICKES, with an introduction by CARL G. JUNG. Appleton, \$3 00

Mrs Wickes is consulting psychologist to St Agatha's School, New York, and has studied with Dr Jung at Zurich. Hence her knowledge of the subject about which she writes has a wide practical and theoretical base. Her book deals with the psychological difficulties of ordinary children, mostly those of school age. It is a lucid and simply expressed exposition, and abounds in examples of the kind of difficulties that are met with by any teacher or parent in the course of everyday experience. The question "How and to what extent can children safely be analysed" is a burning one among educationists of the present day. Mrs Wickes gives the answer that her experience has taught her, and gives it with chapter and verse, repeatedly and definitely, throughout the book. She has, moreover, a quite unusual gift for brilliant and thought-provoking generalisation. Thus "We have a naive idea that anyone can feel if he wants to. But to the sensation, intuitive or thinking types true feeling may be a matter of genuine achievement. It may be as difficult for the thinking child to feel as for the feeling child to think."

"Moods and tempestuous emotions which we have frequently accepted as indications of feeling are only the undifferentiated material out of which feeling may be made, but which in their undifferentiated form are unconscious products. Real feeling is a consciously accepted value."

The subject of the influence of parental difficulties upon the unconscious mind of the child is most illuminatingly dealt with, and the chapter on sex is admirable.

Looked at from the English point of view Mrs Wickes' attitude toward children is perhaps a little sentimental and over-idealized. She tells us what is the matter with the nervous, over-sensitive, under-loved, or misunderstood child, we should like to know where we go wrong in our dealings with the coarser types—the selfish young ruffian who makes home life a misery for the family, the clever and self-satisfied prig who lives only to put his elders in the wrong. These are children who have also somehow made a mess of things, and in many ways they are more difficult to understand and more to be pitied than their more sensitive companions.

G C

Understanding Human Nature. By ALFRED ADLER Greenberg, \$3 50

This book is based upon a year's lectures to an audience of hundreds of men and women of all ages and professions at the People's Institute in Vienna. Its purpose is to point out how the mistaken behaviour of the individual affects the harmony of our social and communal life—to teach the individual to recognise his own mistakes, and to show him how he may effect a harmonious adjustment to the communal life.

"To be a good human being" is for Dr Adler the aim of education. He says, "We can easily measure anyone's social feeling by learning to what degree he is prepared to serve, to help, and to give pleasure to others." And the translator reminds us in a footnote that the word rendered "social feeling" "connotes the sense of human solidarity, the connectedness of man to man in a cosmic relationship."

The understanding of human nature seems to Dr Adler to be "indispensable to every man," and the study of its science he sees as "the most important activity of the human mind."

This book then is to help us in this study, to make us sharers in the multiplicity of experience gained in a lifetime of patient observation, study, and close contact with human beings.

We are taught to see each person as a unique individual, an unrepeatable edition of humanity, striving towards a goal, a fulfilment of his wishes for security and adaptation to life. The feeling of inferiority which the child necessarily has, being a small, weak infant in an environment of adults, gives him a tendency towards domination and superiority, often too great, as an over-compensation for this inferiority-feeling. From their earliest days children should be helped to develop courage and confidence and an inner knowledge of themselves as human beings capable of solving every difficulty or problem that may arise.

The individual cannot exist alone, he finds himself face to face with a world that gives and takes, that expects adaptation if life is to give satisfaction. The necessity for dealing with man as a social being is essential.

The early situation of the child; his position in the family as the eldest or youngest born, or as an only child, his having been unduly neglected or over-considered and "spoilt," all such circumstances influence and to a great extent determine the character-traits of his later life.

The second half of this book, "The Science of Character," deals with many traits and affects which are valuable indicators for the understanding

of a human being, and there is a helpful appendix on Education—its influence in the home, in the school and in life, on the growth of the soul.

All those who have Education as a primary interest will find this book invaluable, stimulating, and unusually informative, while to everyone it can give a deeper knowledge and a greater understanding of human nature, a more joyous sense of the dignity and responsibility of human beings. R G.

The Estimated Cost of the Hadow Committee's Proposals to Raise the School-Leaving Age.

Adolescent Education—The Next Step. Price 2d each, post free 2½d; 1/6 per dozen, post free

We have received from the Bureau of Public Education, The Workers' Educational Association, copies of the above two pamphlets on the Report of the Hadow (Consultative) Committee of the Board of Education. This is one of the most important educational reports that have been published in recent years and outlines a scheme whereby secondary education, of one kind or another, would be provided for all children between the ages of 11 and 15. It also recommends that the school-leaving age be raised to 15. The first pamphlet sets out the probable cost of raising the school-leaving age, and the other gives a brief summary of the Hadow Committee's main recommendations. We might mention that the Bureau of Public Education has recently been set up by the Workers' Educational Association to fill a long-felt want by supplying information on educational matters to individuals and organisations interested in education.

The Schools of England. A Study in Renaissance.

Edited by J. DOVER WILSON, Litt D., Professor of Education in the University of London, King's College, with a preface by LORD EUSTACE PERCY, President of the Board of Education. Sidgwick and Jackson, 18/-.

Seventeen experts here deal with the branches of education with which they are most familiar. The scope of the book is wide, the first chapter, by Miss Lillian de Lissa, treats of Nursery Schools, the last of the Educational Scheme of the Air Force Elementary, Secondary, Technical, Adult Education, and the Training of Teachers, all receive full treatment, and it is noteworthy that the section on Secondary Education contains a chapter on the Borstal Schools. There are valuable appendices containing statistics and dates, and that striking graph from *The Next Step in National Education* entitled "The Problem of Education between the ages of 11 and 16" has been included with Mr R. F. Cholmeley's chapter on "The Boys' Day School."

The note of the book is one of deep-rooted optimism. Dr F. H. Spencer, writing of the public elementary school, considers the system "as good as, probably better than, any other in the world." Mr Alan Rennie puts up a stout defence of the preparatory school. Mr Cholmeley considers that "the possibilities of our schools—and perhaps above all of our secondary day schools—have never been more exciting than they are to-day, never more worthy of imaginative interest." "The boarding schools," says Mr Cyril Norwood, "are a living expression of our national genius" and "the general level . . . has never been higher than to-day."

Women's training colleges "have steadily strengthened and proved their worth." One might quote similar appreciations from every chapter.

This does not mean that the writers are wholly content with that branch of education with which each deals. Far from it, each contributor was asked to keep before him (or her) the question (one of three)—In what way might (the main or the characteristic contributions which your institution or institutions make to the national life) be made more complete or more effective?—and there is ample evidence that every writer has considered the question carefully. The result is that this volume is full of material for thought on the part of every teacher who takes a broad interest in education. True, the contributors deal largely with the administrative side, as of necessity they must when examining the place their institutions hold in the English educational system, but the psychological side receives very careful attention. Altogether, it is a full and exact study of English education at the present day, which contains also much historical, critical and prophetic matter. It is only to be regretted that space could not be found for a chapter on those schools which, while not forming part of the "State educational system," are yet doing, often under conditions of great difficulty, much experimental and enlightened work in education.

H C D

An Adventure with Children. By M. H. LEWIS. Macmillan, \$1.75

This book is a description of an interesting experiment with children by the Principal of the school which she and her children founded. It started on a roof in New York under hard and rather depressing conditions, and but for the enthusiasm and perseverance of the founders would certainly never have succeeded. It is a record of close contact with nature and doing things in which the children would seem to have achieved both knowledge and character.

Perhaps the most lasting impressions which are left on the reader's mind are the notes of genuine simplicity and sincerity which permeated the whole experiment. It is a delightfully refreshing experience to have read the book after so much methodological theory. Here is a practical achievement of which even Dr Dewey cannot speak too highly.

I. B. KING

TO BE REVIEWED LATER

- Studies in Decet.** MARK A. MAY & H. HARTSHORNE.
L'Éduc. Nouvelle en Autriche. R. DOTRENS
 Delachaux and Niestlé
Une Expérience d'Éducation Nouvelle. A. JOUENNE
 Radot, Paris
La Educación Activa (Spain). J. MALLART. Editorial Labor, Delegación Madrid, Ayala 49

ESPERANTO LESSONS

Owing to great demands on space in this issue we have not been able to include our usual Esperanto lesson, but it has been printed separately and can be had free of charge on application to *The New Era*, 11, Tavistock Square, London, W C 1



Photo by E W Pannell, Hove

MR H C DENT,

Member of English Committee, N.E.F.,
and Editor of present number of *New Era*

Recently appointed Headmaster of The Gateway School, Leicester

THE NEW ERA

(The English Organ of the New Education Fellowship)

Editor: MRS. BEATRICE ENSOR.

Assistant Editor: MISS CLARE SOPER.

Vol. 9

OCTOBER, 1928

No. 36

EDITIONS:

ENGLISH (Quarterly)	THE NEW ERA	<i>Subscription per ann., post free 4s. 6d. (\$1 15)</i>
	Mrs Beatrice Ensor, 11, Tavistock Sq., London	
FRENCH (Monthly)	POUR L'ERE NOUVELLE	8 Fr. (Swiss), 6/8, \$1 60
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(Note—The Editor is not responsible for views expressed in the magazine other than those in the Editorial. The above editions are not translations of each other, each Editor being free to fill the special needs of his own readers.)

Subscription to *The New Era* is 4/6 (\$1 15) per annum

(Foreign cheques accepted, but 10 cts. should be added to cheques drawn on distant banks)

Published: JANUARY, APRIL, JULY, OCTOBER

THE NEW ERA, 11, TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1, ENGLAND.

AGENTS—England: W H. Smith & Son

U.S.A.: New Educ Fellowship, Room 1607, 2, W 46th Street, New York City
Bookshop for Boys and Girls, 270, Boylston Street, Boston, Mass
Brentano's, 1, W. 47th Street, New York City

S. Africa: Juta & Co., Ltd., Booksellers, P.O. Box 30, Capetown (also Johannesburg)

Canada: Gordon & Gotch, 81, Queen Street W., Toronto.
T Eaton & Co., Toronto.

Printed and made in Great Britain

ELSINORE

(Helsingör, Denmark).

World Conference on New Education

8th to 21st AUGUST, 1929

(The Fifth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship)

GENERAL THEME.

INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY AND THE NEW CURRICULUM.

THE AIM of the Fellowship's conferences is to draw together all who are seeking to practise the new ideals in education, for an interchange of ideas and for a strengthening of those bonds that unite educational pioneers throughout the world

Elsinore is one of the most beautiful old towns of Denmark, situated by the sea and in the midst of lovely country Its famous Kronborg Castle will be the headquarters of the Conference

STUDY COURSES AND DISCUSSION GROUPS.

In addition to the lecture programme a series of Courses and Groups will be held Members will be asked to book for these meetings in advance so that sustained and consecutive study may be maintained Among the Courses and Groups so far arranged are —Curriculum Research; The Psychology of the New Education, Education through Purposeful Activity, the Philosophy of the New Education, the New School in Action; New Ways in Art Education, the Child and Religion; the Training of Teachers for Progressive Schools; Individual Psychology and Types; the Dalton Plan, the Decroly Method, the Winnetka Technique, Adult Education in Relation to Progressive Education in Schools, Education for the Kellogg Pact Other groups are in process of formation.

Among the speakers will be —

Great Britain.	England.	Dr Percy Nunn, Dr C W. Kimmins, Miss Grace Owen, Mrs Beatrice Ensor, Dr Lloyd Storr-Best, Mr. F. P. Armitage, Mr. H C Dent, Mr J Compton
	Scotland	Dr W Boyd, Mr. Neil S Snodgrass, Prof. W. McClelland
	Wales	Prof F Cavanagh, Mr G. H. Green.
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France.		M Georges Bertier, M. R Cousinet, Prof. A Vullhod.
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Austria.		Dr. P Dengler, Frau Prof Baer-Frissell.
Belgium.		Dr O Decroly, Mlle Hamaide
Denmark.		Mr J G Arvin, Mr H Begtrup, Mr A Vedel
India.		Sir Rabindranath Tagore (<i>health permitting</i>)
Poland.		Dr J Mlodowska, Dr. H Rowid

ALL REGISTRATIONS MUST BE RECEIVED BY MARCH 1st.

Organised parties will travel from England, Scotland, America, and Geneva (the latter for the benefit of members who will attend the Conference of the World Federation of Educational Associations which will be held at Geneva from 25th July to 4th August)

Write for further particulars to

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and

THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP, Room 1607, 2 West 46th Street, New York City

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THE OUTLOOK TOWER

Change is the salt of life, no matter whether it be change in food, in environment or in occupation. It keeps us fresh, alive, buoyant and coaxes us into a fuller existence, richer experiences and more numerous contacts with our fellow-beings. Above all it keeps us out of that deadly routine that reduces all our processes to the humdrum. An ordinary English menu (typified by roast beef on Sunday and cold joint on Monday!) mirrors the mechanical existence so many of us lead.

In these pages we are constantly trying to acquaint our readers with the changing outlook in education, and we urge them to read widely, to explore the fields of child psychology, to tune their minds to the relative values of all the teaching methods, scientific discoveries, schools of educational philosophy and research.

This need of a new mental outlook has led me to vacate the editorial chair and to invite Mr. H. C. Dent to sit in it! We look upon him as a man of great promise in our educational world; not only is he a teacher of practical experience, but he is a man of wide sympathies and understanding, one of our all too few teachers of the new school. As an English specialist he was exceptionally well qualified to undertake this work, and we thank him very warmly for all the time and energy he has devoted to this number. The task of an Editor is never light, but his has been undoubtedly made heavier. We asked him to produce the January number, but when our arrangements for that edition fell through he volunteered to produce his special number on the teaching of English in October. Time was therefore very short; he had to curtail his holiday and as his editorial work coincided with his appointment to the headship of the new Gateway School, Leicester, his work for us was carried out under very trying conditions. We congratulate him both on

this edition of the *New Era* and on his appointment. With fresh opportunities and an enlarged sphere of influence his work should be far-reaching, as well as of inestimable value to the cause we all have at heart.

It has been particularly interesting to me to read through the manuscript of an edition for which I have not been responsible, and I think readers will find a great deal of practical help in this number. I am glad the importance of technique has been stressed. Its neglect has been responsible for so much stunted self-expression and disharmonies of speech. On the other hand, it seems unwise to concentrate on the science of language too early. In England we are inclined to do this. Spelling and writing are taught as disconnected processes in which the child has no interest, and for which he has no use. It is often a tedious job and is divorced from the child's own inner life, from his love of fun and adventure and from his creative impulses. In my opinion the first few years should be spent in story-telling and making, in discovery, in answering the innumerable "Hows," "Whys" and "Whats." It has been found helpful to let children dictate stories to a teacher who takes them down in type. This gives the child great joy and satisfaction, and the knowledge that he need not struggle with all the complexities of writing at once loosens his creative ability. A typewriting machine should be part of every school equipment. There are also now on the market small printing presses which children can handle, by means of which they can produce their own class and school magazines. Children must have an immediate object in writing, and it is because of this that I think stimulation should come several years before any insistence on correct technique.

It is a curious fact that English as a

school "subject" so often implies reading and writing, and that as a general rule we fail to connect with it the most frequently used process of all, that of speech. No one happens to have mentioned the necessity of speech training, and yet the art of speaking is quite different from the art of writing. As a nation our oratorical powers are neglected. In the progressive schools of the U.S.A. I was delighted to see more time given to this form of expression. In the primary grades children are taught to give account of their doings, their pets and their interests, and in the higher grades a school assembly is a regular part of the time-table. Children then address the whole school on some particular project they have been studying. I listened to a number of these assemblies and was amazed at the mastery of speech these young people possess. They are quite unselfconscious, they speak with ease and they interest their audience while they rarely stumble for loss of words. The art of speaking is just as much a creative outlet as music, painting and writing. Yet we fail to help our children to explore its possibilities, and as a result the gift of oratory is rarely developed. I know of a child who stumbled on this talent unawares. She went into an empty church and on the impulse of the moment climbed into the pulpit and addressed an imaginary congregation!

This brings me to the joy to be found in words. They are in short the clothes in which we dress our ideas and their appeal to children can be made irresistible. They love to compare them to the many-hued silks, crêpes, cottons, satins, furs and velvets with which we clothe our bodies. Just as from these materials we fashion clothes, so from words do we create beautiful-sounding phraseology, imagery and style. The result of our fashioning portrays the inner personality. We are all aware of the significance of clothes: they are a sure index of the wearer's inner self, be she prim, ostentatious, artistic, reserved. So with the words we use. Our speech lays

bare our ignorance or our wisdom, our poverty or our wealth of thought. A greater love of words and their right usage would go far to enrich the thinness of vocabulary with which teachers of English are always struggling, particularly if parents would co-operate by inculcating this love from the earliest nursery years.

* * * * *

The January number of the *New Era* will be edited by Dr. Harold Rugg, of the Lincoln School, New York. He has conducted an intensive experiment in social studies with a view to discovering how the curriculum can be changed to meet the needs of modern life. The January number will deal with the whole problem of curriculum research. B. E.

EDITORIAL.

We offer this "English" number without any apology whatsoever. Its shortcomings are obvious, but we make no attempt either to explain or to excuse them. We shall welcome criticism, destructive or constructive, with open arms, for our pages are intended to be provocative, and shall feel that our labour has not been in vain if readers are sufficiently interested to write and tell us that we have been helpful—or that they heartily disagree with opinions expressed herein.

Our Contributors

We have said that the shortcomings of this number are obvious. That word "shortcomings" is to be taken in its literal sense; we have come far short of covering the whole field of English teaching, and we know it. But within our limits, we are convinced that we here present to our readers only first-class material. For this we have to thank our contributors, many of whom are, we believe, making a first (but we hope not last) appearance in these pages. To them, one and all, we do tender our sincerest and deepest thanks, for they (with the sad exception of our late friend Geoffrey Elton, the remem-

brance of whose untimely death still lies heavy on our hearts) had to respond to our appeal at a time when work pressed hard, and yet gave gladly of their best.

The Teaching of English in England

The notes from the schools, and, still more, the examples of original work by children which we are privileged to print, are evidence enough of what can be achieved where English is really well taught. But let no reader be deceived; the teaching of English in England, in spite of the monumental report of the Departmental Committee,* in spite of the illuminating commentary thereon published by the Assistant Masters' Association,† in spite of all the research and experimental work during recent years, is not yet in a satisfactory state, and will not reach that state until the majority of teachers in this country can take a broader and more far-seeing view of the importance of the subject. Two points in particular need to be grasped, the first of which was well expressed in 1924 in the report of the Departmental Committee:—

“The inadequate conception of the teaching of English in this country is not a separate defect which can be separately remedied. It is due to a more far-reaching failure—the failure to conceive the full meaning and possibilities of national education as a whole, and that failure again is due to a misunderstanding of the educational values to be found in the different regions of mental activity, and especially to an underestimate of the importance of the English language and literature.”

The second point is that English must be considered a multilateral, or at least bilateral, subject, and yet as essentially a unity. When we read to a child

“O wild West wind, thou breath of Autumn's being . . .”

we utter an appeal to the spiritual emotion

locked up in him, and cannot be satisfied until we believe that he really feels in his soul the warm, boisterous thrill of the sou'-westerly gale; when we tell him that 's marks the possessive case we appeal simply and coldly to his intellect. Part of the subject matter of English is as spiritual and emotional as the finest music, part is as frigidly logical as mathematics. Few teachers are there who know how to weld the various parts of the subject into an harmonious whole.

The Return of Formal Work

Of late years the general tendency has been to emphasise the appreciative and creative aspects of English. That is, we sincerely believe, entirely right, but the result of the tendency was at first a neglect of formalism to an extent that was altogether unjustifiable. In our haste we threw overboard Grammar, but, as Mr. Pocock points out, we have found ourselves unable to do without it, and Grammar has returned triumphant. We abandoned the old-fashioned spelling grinds and dictation drills, saying that if we concentrated on matter the manner also would be added unto our pupils. We have found out our mistake; and it will be with something like a sigh of relief that many teachers will read Dr. Boyd's authoritative dictum that “there is no more valuable exercise than dictation.” One fact is that a child, in order to be able to read English with appreciation and to use it with skill, whether as speaker or writer, must do quite a large amount of formal work.

The Glory of Creation

This is written, not to over-emphasise the importance of formal work in English, or to suggest that it shall ever again occupy, as it used to do, the major part of the time devoted to the subject, but to remind teachers of the problem which still remains largely unsolved, that of teaching technique thoroughly without killing interest or inhibiting creative activity. The ultimate end of all English teaching must be creation; no child can be con-

* The Teaching of English in England. H.M. Stationery Office 1/6 net

† Memorandum on the Teaching of English Assistant Masters' Association 3/6

sidered properly handled until the training he has received has resulted in the glory of creation, until he has added his contribution to the wealth of English Literature, until he has spoken or written something that others would not willingly let die. And that can never come to pass—or only in the rarest instances—without a sure knowledge of technique. One gets so tired, for example, of seeing or hearing the phrase “the art of writing”; writing, as everyone who has ever put pen to paper in the effort seriously to express his thoughts or his emotions, is just as much a science as an art, and we wrong our pupils if we let them think otherwise.

School Libraries and Theatres

In these brief notes it is only possible to touch in cursory fashion on a few aspects of English teaching, but no editorial such as this would remotely approach adequacy if it failed to mention two happy developments in methodology, the careful and increasing attention that is being paid in so many places to school libraries, and the swift development of dramatic work. The English in no school can ever be satisfactory until that school possesses an all-round, *well-used* library. Mr. Gibson tells us of one such, and as apt footnote to his article we print a school-girl's appreciation of her school library. We refrain from comment upon her article, save to bring especially to our readers' notice one sentence which strikes us as being among the most pregnant utterances ever made by one still at school:—

“The Library, thank God for it, and all its beautiful surroundings, *and for everything one gives to it*, and everything one gains by it.” (The italics are ours.)

One comment alone upon school drama. We entirely agree with Mr. Bailey in his lively plea for home-made plays. Too much dramatic work in schools has wasted itself; its only effect has been to produce rather efficient amateur actors. That

result is an interesting, but not an educational one to any marked degree; it savours, in fact, of vocational training! Drama is a means of expression, perhaps the noblest and certainly the most comprehensive, and as such we should employ it in the schools.

The Influence of the Home

The teacher of English, more than any other teacher, is dependent on the support of the home, and now that co-operation between parents and teachers really does exist in many places, the advice in Mrs. Radice's article ought to be of great value to both sides. Parents are sometimes willing *and* knowledgeable, but far more frequently willing and ignorant; and a wise word here and there from the teacher may have far-reaching effects on the child's English. “Cast thy bread upon the waters, and it shall return unto thee after many days,” says the Scripture, and while no teacher of English can ever be certain of seeing the return, nothing is more sure than that the odd crusts of encouragement and advice that are thrown, often carelessly to children, do produce sometimes rich harvests. To change slightly the metaphor, what is sown in the school is reaped in the home, and throughout this land many a well-read shelf of books, many a manuscript of value, bear silent testimony to the enthusiasm and energy of some almost-forgotten teacher.

Resolution and Research

We invite all readers, be they teachers or parents, to accept the words above “**Resolution and Research**,” as a fit motto. We all teach English, whether it is our subject or not; every word that drops from our lips, every sentence that we write, ought to be a lesson in English. It is our business, then, to teach with resolution, and, in order that our energy be not misdirected, to do at least a little research work into the problems of the subject.

H. C. D.

The Teaching of English

(These notes by the late Mr Geoffrey York Elton, of Frensham Heights School, who died on June 10, 1927, have been put together from material found amongst his papers. A short book of his on the same subject, which it is hoped will be published, is being edited by J. Compton, M.A., Director of Education for Barking.)

False Value of Words

The great mistake people are apt to make is to think of English teaching as chiefly a matter of talking about words and spellings and writings; and it nearly always has been that, but that isn't really the most deeply important part. The real essence of it is to teach people to see through words and escape from them. Words have an appalling power of preventing people from thinking and from being real; most botanists never see a flower when they've once learnt the name of it, and in fact most of us never see ordinary things in a fresh way because their names have fixed them for us into something unchangeable. The greatest curse of modern life is this fact that we've made ourselves an instrument, in book language, that paralyses our powers of real thinking. The special business of an English teacher is to unparalyse people by teaching them not to respect words so much, but rather to see through them and discover reality beneath; that is, to interpret printed matter and see that it isn't really anything at all, and needn't be bothered about except when somebody occasionally manages to get a few of his living thoughts conveyed through it. So what it seems to me an English teacher specially needs to do is to teach people to *imagine* real things and see the consequences of real situations. Whatever English teaching should be, it should *not* be a shoving of a varnish of culture on to people who are really deeply bored with life itself. If a person isn't enterprising and interested in real life, it isn't any good teaching him to like literature. That is why school should not be a preparation for the future grown-up existence called life, but it should be life in itself: a pulsating reality which tempts children out on

intellectual and emotional voyages of discovery. Life at school, to be worth anything, must be full of so many challenges and hard solid obstacles calling for full stretch of faculties, memory, observation and calculation, that a child has no time to stop and think of pleasures and indulgences. Things must happen so thick and fast that there's no danger of a child falling into reverie. There may be many amusing and delightful jobs in this subject, but they must always contain 50 per cent. of a solid difficult medium to conquer; and there must be unshrinking, outspoken criticism if ever he tries to neglect the conditions of reality.

All-Inclusiveness of "English"

To make people interested in discussing any puzzle that comes into their heads; to make them able to catch an idea and fix it; to make them able to get out (with travail or not) their wants, their dreams, their discontents, their personal reaction, their exact sighings and aspirations—in fact, their characters—with some comfort and ease; what other subject does this? It's done partly by practice and partly by hearing it done by other people, in poetry and in prose, and even in living discussion and conversation. Children have a passion for reality and non-humbug if you can only get down to it. Lessons on any author can just turn into excuses for conversations about anything in the world. Enthusiasm for subjects not allowed in the school curriculum, or maybe in it, can be stimulated and allowed rein. Superstitions, local customs, law-courts, medicine, commerce, shops and advertisements, gardens, in fact anything, can be treated as subjects for curiosity and conversation, and, if possible, for research. It is everybody's

business to be interested and keen on something, and if he is thinking about that he can be excused almost everything else. A child who does not feel particularly interested in a play should never be forced to take part in it; rather, he should be allowed to work quietly at the back of the room at some subject in which he is interested.

The chief difficulty from the teacher's side is to have enough *répertoire* of passages from literature to read, as life is too short now to get a huge knowledge (and live enthusiasm) of English literature. Anthologies would help, were there some really good ones, and it is quite a good plan to get children to read, report and anthologise themselves. Anyway, do not let us pretend to be rigidly literary all the time: pretence is a blight. Yet on the other hand, we must not neglect to give children the feeling and the experience that thoughts and desires can be said in very exact and sparkling language.

An English course should never be a fixed one, for rigidity is the mark of lifelessness in a subject that is in its own nature a very living thing. On the other hand, most satisfactory courses will find time for such diverse activities as writing stories and compositions, keeping anthologies of poems and lists of books read (with a short critique on each), silent reading, lectures, play-acting and definite group teaching. The latter should deal with all the possible difficulties and puzzles and questions that have arisen, and should provide opportunities for the exercise of the critical faculties. Definite literature-teaching is important, and this may often lead to a collective digging into various books and plays.

Grammar

This is a controversial subject. Statistics have shown that grammar was the subject most disliked in a great many schools, and I think this was due to the fact that the children were afraid of all this talk about dead words; and justifiably afraid too, for they knew it was hampering instead of helping them to express themselves. There have been two main

movements of reaction against this. One has been a very general movement in favour of abolishing grammar out of English courses and leaving what little smattering of it there was to be studied in foreign language lessons. A great many leading people have adopted this attitude and the space allotted to grammar has dwindled smaller and smaller in books on English teaching and in examination questions.

The other line of reform, which I think much more promising (only it has not yet gone far enough), is the one which recognises living ideas behind language instead of mere words; it acknowledges laws of thought and of logic and it attempts to follow the way in which words grow and add to each other under different emotions and purposes. This emotional side of language-study is the one that has been least touched upon and that will lead to all the really living side of grammar.

Vocabulary

Every good teacher seems to have to evolve more or less his own course of talks about words. The great thing is to get the class suggesting questions and ideas themselves and to follow out their ideas as much as any programme of one's own. Here are a few suggestions:—

1. Let's think of all the bad words we can, or all the greedy words, noble words, noise words, looking words, shape words, words for a clean railway carriage or words to describe colours, jewels, birds, etc. (Such a suggestion might do for an individual occupation as a change or rest from other kinds of writing.)
2. Let's see if we can find the opposites of words. (The children will now have lists of words which will serve as a basis for this kind of work.)
3. Do you ever find several words meaning the same thing? (Class give instances.) What's the use when one word would be enough? (This leads to a discussion on sound, monotony of repetition, shades of meaning, etc., etc.)

- 4 Fill in the missing words in these puzzle sentences.—

Lobster is to shrimp as horse
is to . . .

Propeller is to boat as . . .
is to shark.

Armour is to knight as . . .
is to snail.

Grains are to sand as . . .
are to crowd.

Bark is to tree as
is to man.

Coal is to mine as
is to quarry.

Etc

Morning Work

Technique of writing and spelling should be tackled in the morning before fatigue has set in, and it would be wise to see that most of the solid question-answering and conscientious investigation-work were done when the powers of concentration are least strained. It looks rather as if literature, such as Shakespeare, should be started first as a light entertaining afternoon subject, and then developed further later on. Similarly, fairy tales, after having been used and liked as an entertainment, might be discussed more solidly and scientifically later. All the study of words can be worked at in morning times, likewise questions of spelling, punctuation, writing and good English. Ballard's English tests come in usefully here

Afternoon Work

There ought to be an afternoon time in the School time-table when the lighter parts of English work can be done under less stringent conditions of conscience than those required for the solid, obligatory, investigating and "minimum programme" kind of work. For instance, while a story or play is being read aloud people not taking active parts might be allowed to sew or draw. One would need to watch which kind of occupation works best, and to forbid any that seemed too entirely absorbing. Story reading and telling, dramatic work, debates and

lecturettes are all suitable afternoon activities.

Criticism

Can children be taught to criticise the truth of newspapers? How would you tackle this? One might buy a dozen copies of a single issue of any one particular daily paper and ask people to draw green chalk lines round the columns that seemed to them chiefly well-intentioned, blue round neutral ones, and red round mischievous, selfish, harmful or poisonous ones and then compare notes. One might get a group to compare the remarks of different papers when one particular question is in the air; this should lead to a realisation of the unsatisfactoriness of most papers. Another method would be to procure copies of *The Times*, *Manchester Guardian*, *Daily Mail*, etc. (all one day's issue), and set as an essay subject to try and decide which was the most honest. The reasons for the varying opinions would make a most illuminating comparison

Psychology of Essay-writing

A successful subject that interests and intrigues the child and makes him *want* to write ought to act as an escape-valve for quite a lot of his puzzles, problems, repressions and exploratory instincts. Pictures of his ideas of the moment and of his preoccupations should be reflected in his writings. Just as a happy person is able to bring out and air nearly all his biggest topical worries, so a child in good functional health of mind will give his tigers and ghosts a chance of airing themselves in his writings. But the subjects must be skilfully set to give this cathartic principle a chance of working. But if a person is dull in essays and conversation it shows that he has not yet mastered the art of keeping his problems in sight and of enjoying the game of testing and verifying them with a certain gusto

Shakespeare wrote most of his plays under the shade of other people's ideas and stories, which he followed whenever he had no special ideas of his own; and I

think if this was good enough for Shakespeare it ought to do quite well for other people. It is unpsychological to put any strain on people's creative powers, for it damages their self-confidence, which is generally weak enough already. It is, therefore, wise to start children off on sentences with words missed out, or poems with lines missed out, or a story almost finished except for one rather obvious idea with a gap that simply shouts out to be finished. Children enjoy finding the missing parts and almost unconsciously are tempted to invent. Most of the good subjects have this property of compensation; but it's just this power of thinking compensating thoughts that is about the most valuable thing a person can learn. A great deal of life's drudgery, mechanism and drabness is the result of our not having preserved the springiness of this property.

ESSAY SUGGESTIONS.

Thinking and Arguing Subjects

- (1) Write a defence of eating a lot of cakes and a defence of not eating a lot of cakes—both full of good arguments.
- (2) Write in two columns, divided under separate headings,
 - (a) the kind of harm done by newspapers, and
 - (b) the kind of good done by newspapers.
- (3) Should men stand up and give their seats to women in trams or trains?
- (4) People are allowed to say more or less whatever they like in speeches in Hyde Park, but in other countries this would be considered dangerous. Which is right?

Subjects for Questions

- (1) Suppose you met a Polar explorer at dinner, write down twenty questions that you would be glad of the chance of asking him.
- (2) What twenty questions would you like to ask a Ship's Engineer if you

met him? Or a Keeper in the Zoo? Or a Detective?

- (3) If a crocodile offered to talk to you for a quarter of an hour and answer questions as far as it knew how, what would be the first twenty you would ask?

Subjects for Imaginative Description

- (1) Flowers in corn, as seen by a beetle making a journey through it.
- (2) A scene containing enormous, unbelievable quantities of seaweed and one pirate. What happens?
- (3) Part of Heaven.

Subjects for Description from Memory

- (1) The worst tea party you ever went to.
- (2) How different people behave in railway carriages.
- (3) All the kinds of sweets found in sweet shops.
- (4) The shiny things to be seen on a hot summer's day.

"If" Questions

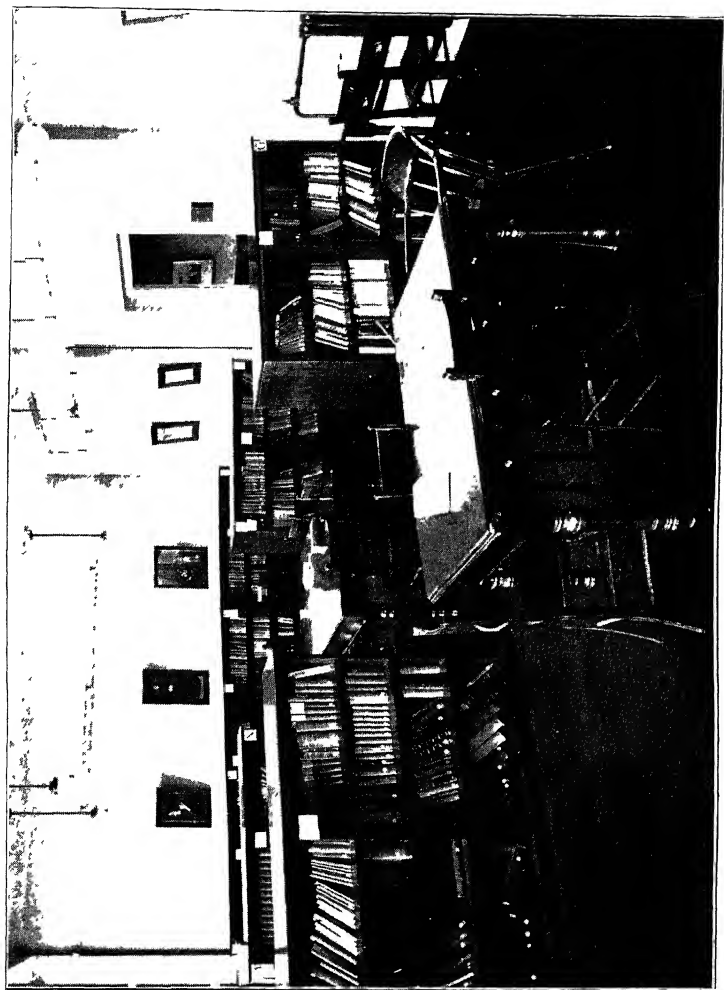
- (1) If you were now forty years old and had lived most of your life in the African jungle, what would you like to look back on most in your past adventures? Describe some.
- (2) If money grew on trees everywhere, what would happen?
- (3) If you could arrange the school time-table according to your tastes, what would it be like?

Subjects for Dialogues and Conversations

- (1) A very talkative man and a very silent taciturn man.
- (2) Two people who never listen to each other.

Subjects for Stories

- (1) Write a story full of exaggerations.
- (2) Write a story bringing in the following things: a Doctor, a Battleship, a Pirate and a Sea Serpent.
- (3) Write the story of a man who drank some "intensifier" by mistake while developing photos and was speeded up in all his movements.



THE LIBRARY

BEC SECONDARY SCHOOL, LONDON



Laurie
Kenneth

*Drawing to illustrate Rabindranath Tagore's line—
"Stand a-tiptoe to peep at the heavens."*

WOODCUT BY LAURIE KENNETH, aged 17
Pupil of the Garden School, Bucks

The School Library as a Centre of Culture

By S. R. Gibson, M.A. (Cantab.)

(Headmaster of Bec Secondary School, Beechcroft Road, London)

THE Library at Bec School began under most auspicious circumstances two years ago. The school was new and the architect had provided us with a delightful room for use as a Library; the Chairman of the Governors (Sir Harry Stephen), who has many literary interests and connections, was most helpful and sympathetic, and the School Staff were all keen to make the Library a real centre of culture in the school.

We formed a Library Panel consisting of the Headmaster, the Librarian, and the Senior Masters in the various school subjects (not omitting Art, Crafts and Music), and we pooled our ideas and experience. The boys were too young to be given much share in shaping library policy and organisation: later on they will take a more important part in helping to run the Library. A provisional organisation was put into operation, and after the Library had been running for a year the Board of Education published a "Memorandum on Libraries in State-Aided Secondary Schools in England."* From this we adopted several admirable suggestions which improved our organisation, but we did not find it necessary to modify the main outline of the Library scheme.

Our first concern was to make the Library itself attractive to the boys. The room is light, airy and well ventilated, and it is situated in the quietest part of the building. Our task therefore was mainly to furnish it to give comfort and "atmosphere." The book cases, in dark oak, are all about four feet high, so that the tops may be used as book rests during reference, and several of them are placed "end-on" to the walls so that the room is divided into nooks and alcoves. Each of these alcoves is provided with a small writing-table and chairs, in addition to the larger library tables which are placed in the open space

in front of a rather unique fire-place of stone and patterned tiles. Care was taken to provide sufficient accommodation in the Library for the largest form in the school, because it was intended that "Library periods" should form part of the programme of every form. Finally, a special selection of pictures for the walls was made from the Medical Society's list, so that each of the famous schools of painting should be represented by one masterpiece. The general result is an atmosphere favourable to quiet reading and study.

But *books* form a Library, and the first selection was a matter of very serious thought, because we wished the Library to be well-balanced from the beginning. There is always a temptation to invest very largely in novels—juvenile and otherwise—as a kind of bait for the young reader. This pitfall was avoided by a clear division of the Library into two sections—(a) A Reference section, in which each subject of study in the school should be represented; (b) a General Reading section, to develop breadth of view and general literary interests. More than two-thirds of the books fell within the reference section, because it is intended that use of the Library shall be an integral part of method in teaching and the general balance of the library will be preserved by a definite method of selecting new books. By this method the annual grant is allotted to the two sections of the library in the proportions just indicated. The Librarian draws up his list of new books for the General Reading section, while the Library Panel meets to draw up the list for the Reference section. Each master on the Panel has a list of reference books in his own section arranged in order of urgency, and the sum available for reference books is divided by the Headmaster among the subjects after exchange of views at the Panel meeting. In this way each subject receives consideration and the Library develops *pari passu* with the intellectual life of the school.

* Educational Pamphlet No. 51 H.M. Stationery Office 3d net

When the Library has been furnished, and the books have been provided, the critical problem is to develop the "Library habit" in the boys or all efforts are wasted. The Library must be a place of constant and habitual resort. What influences may tend to produce this result?

1. The question usually arises whether a school library should be kept together in one room or divided into subject libraries allotted to the individual rooms of subject masters. The latter plan has much to recommend it, because the books are at hand for ready reference when the class is interested in any particular piece of work, but in our own case we decided that it was better to encourage masters, classes and individuals to develop the habit of resorting to the actual school library for information and study. In this way the school library becomes a real factor in school life; and everyone comes to regard it as a part of the building, with as definite a function as any other special room, e.g., a science laboratory.

2. The use of the school library by whole forms caused a little difficulty at first, because there was only one Library and many forms! However, this difficulty has been surmounted by the present by a system of "booking" by masters on behalf of their forms or sets. The Librarian puts up a blank weekly time-table on the Library notice-board, and masters "book" periods during the week. This system has been found to be more flexible than that of having "Library weeks" for certain forms.

It is hardly necessary to point out that it is a waste of time and effort to take a form for individual work to the Library if the supply of books in the particular subject to be studied is not adequate. Careful plans must be made to ensure that each individual pupil will have suitable material to work upon before a whole form is turned loose in the Library. Our own stock of books is by no means adequate, as yet; and much discretion has to be used in making good use of Library periods.

3. The greatest possible freedom is allowed for the use of the Library by individuals. The room is open all day and it is well filled in the long break before afternoon school, and again in the hour after the close of afternoon school. On both these

occasions the Librarian is present to give advice, guidance and encouragement, as well as to issue and take in books. The shelves are open so that every book may be handled, and it is no uncommon thing to see a boy take a book from the shelf in a cursory kind of way, only to become interested in the contents and ask for an issue form when the bell goes. Books are often misplaced, a few books have been lost, but it is a real gain for boys to acquire the habit of free browsing among books in a library. Such a habit has been the foundation of many a literary career.

It is also a common thing for individual boys to be sent by masters during a form period to look up some definite information required in the course of the lesson. This practice is actively encouraged because it teaches boys to extract and summarise facts quickly from books, and then give the information to others.

4. There are no hard-and-fast rules with regard to the number of books which may be borrowed. A boy may be reading a historical novel from the Library, and also require at the same time two or more books to complete some individual work in a particular subject. The Librarian here uses his discretion, after finding out what task the boy is engaged upon.

Borrowing for holiday reading caused some discussion. In long holidays books may be ill-used in some homes and may never be read: and it is a good thing for the Public Libraries to take the place of the school library during holidays. However, we decided to allow boys to borrow up to four volumes for the holidays, and we gave the Librarian power to increase that number in certain cases at his discretion. It has been found that boys either borrow several books or none at all—an illuminating index to boyish tastes!

5. It is not necessary to give in detail the procedure for borrowing and return of books. In brief, a slip is filled in by the boy when he borrows a book, and the Librarian retains that slip until the book is delivered to him again. One interesting experiment, however, should be noted: it is proposed to keep a "reading-sheet" for every boy, and it will be a task of the boys who assist the Librarian to record the particulars on the borrowing slips upon the

reading-sheets of the boys who borrow the books. A master may then be able to examine the reading-sheet of any particular boy to find out how much, or how little, he reads, and what type of book appeals to him. This system is not intended to apply any pressure upon boys; but rather to give the staff some index of the boys' natural tastes in reading. With this information we shall have better knowledge of the boys.

6. A special point is made of initiating new boys into the working of the Library. A full explanation is given to them of the internal organisation and the procedure for borrowing and returning books. We find that new boys are keen to make use of the facilities, and these clear directions and explanations smooth away their natural difficulties and timidity.

7. If parents and boys can be induced to make contributions of books or money to the school library a great point is gained, because the Library becomes a peculiar possession in which all have a personal interest. In fact, the great danger in all schools where building and equipment are

provided "out of the rates" is that individual interest and private benevolence are *ipso facto* discouraged. At Bec School appeals to parents and boys have met with considerable success. Many parents have followed up visits to the Library by donations, and one parent in particular has made himself responsible for the rebinding of damaged volumes. Above all, it is becoming an established custom for boys who leave to present a book to the Library.

The general result of these influences is that we are beginning to feel a lively pride in the contents of the bookshelves. The Library is becoming more of a personal possession to all of us, and its influence is beginning to permeate the whole working atmosphere of the school. It is often alleged that boys, as a whole, are not naturally book-lovers. Probably in many cases interest in books has been killed by the exclusive use of a limited number of joyless text-books, but our experience is that most boys will respond if the range of books is wide enough to meet varying interests and tastes.

The New Library

"When I was but thirteen or so
I went into a golden land,
Chimborazo, Cotopaxi,
Took me by hand."

But when I was four years older and at a boarding school, we had a new library built for us, and Chimborazo and Cotopaxi were supplanted by living people such as Becky Sharp and Nicholas Nickleby. The glamour of my first love remains, however, although new thoughts and ideas are always holding first place for a short time, but, "strangely to the brain asleep music comes," and the glorious uncertainty of "when I was but thirteen or so" still keeps its hold.

Is there anything better, on a cold, windy day, than to retire to a warm room with the book of one's choice, and to browse in front of a cheery fire? All prosaic and worrying thoughts take their exit and dreams of

"Magic casements opening on the foam

Of perilous seas, in fæerylands forlorn,"

begin to throng the mind; and weird ideas of Xanadu and Kubla Khan fly hither and thither, with glimpses of quinquereime of Nineveh.

"With a cargo of ivory

And apes and peacocks,

Sandalwood, cedarwood and sweet, white wine."

All becomes tumbled together in one glorious heyday of colours, when it is suddenly interrupted by shouts of workmen outside. "Hi, Bill! what 'ave

you done wiv that there 'ammer?" or a shrill and penetrative whistle of "Bye, Bye, Blackbird," which cuts the thread of thought and means a new beginning.

This is a typical example of an hour or two spent in the library: one enters, signs one's name, takes a book, sits down, and then one begins to read. In a few minutes the realms of impossibilities are open to us, and gone are the wings of Time. If the book be an anthology of verse.

"A poor life this if, full of care

We have no time to stand and stare,"

raises the thought that it would, indeed, be a poor life if we had no time to read, but we have, and if we so wish we can change our very existence and be reincarnated into a new one; such as, shall we say, Cleopatra, the swarthy, black-browed queen of the Egyptians, and her sickening end. One sees Egypt and the hot, dry desert, with a sandstorm blowing and the blue, blue sky. . . . when the little stars creep in with chatting and talking,

"This frosty night, and they cuddle together

All six in a ring it keeps us warm,

We huddle together like birds in a storm;

It's bitter weather to-night,

It's bitter weather to-night,"

Poor little stars, they do look chilly, though their sparkles are as bright as ever, their pointed faces are pinched and wan. And then W. B. Yeats chimes in with

"I would spread the cloths under your feet
 But I, being poor, have only my dreams,
 I have spread my dreams under your feet
 Tread softly, because you tread on my dreams"
 And all the images in one's mind become sad, and
 blue mists of thought drift across it, like stately
 minuets of the olden times; then everything fades
 away and aught is left but a sob in the heart and
 a longing for something that is not there
 The Library Thank God for it, and all its beautiful
 surroundings, and for everything one gives to it,
 and everything one gains by it

"There is no solace on earth for us—for such as
 we—
 Who search for the hidden beauty that eyes may
 never see"
 But we have the "hope, the burning hope," and the
 Library; and with these two we can travel in the
 realms of gold and acquire knowledge that trans-
 cends our understanding

P HUBBARD, 17 years
 Badminton School.

The Teaching of English

By Professor J. J. Findlay

(Honorary Professor of Education in the University of Manchester.)

ALL I can contribute in a brief paragraph is to give a conception of what "English" means to me; and of the processes by which it is acquired. "English" is an art, like painting and dancing; but since its acquirement is begun and practised in infancy and is pursued every day at all times and seasons, the foundations of the art are beyond the scope of schools and teachers: they rest upon the common air, upon the daily environment of the young. When that is granted and stressed to the full there is still ample room for the schools and their teachers (all of whom in their measure should be exponents of the art). First of all, the school should give its pupils the opportunity of enjoying the best models—hearing, learning by heart, reciting good specimens—so that what has been acquired first on the subconscious plane becomes matter of conscious taste, of selection, of appreciation. Such experience is far more valuable than artificial exercises in composition, especially when the themes chosen for writing excite little or no interest in the mind of the writer. This learning by heart, with careful attention to diction and form—prose as well as poetry being included, song and drama as well as other forms of poetry—is the capital matter. If this be held in the forefront all the rest follows; for the learner himself, in order to express his author well, must understand the model which he desires to interpret with voice and gesture.

Hence arises the distinctive function of the teacher of English; after having selected suitable models and encouraged his pupils to speak them, he is at hand to offer such explanations—philological, historical, and the like—as they will demand in order to understand what they repeat, for you cannot voice what you do not comprehend. These are the intellectual aspects of English study: important in their place, but by no means a substitute for the essential process, for the exercise of taste in this fine art.

Two great movements are contributing to bring this view of "English" to the fore. First the drama, which is now a popular force; every boy and girl now hears English, good or bad, on the stage. And, secondly, the gramophone, wireless, and other inventions, bringing sound waves to our ears, are enabling the voice to come into its own. I am convinced that the written and printed word are destined to take a subordinate place, that the common man in days to come will be interested in poetry, drama, oratory, in their direct appeal to his ear and to his own vocal organs, to an extent our teachers at the present day are unaware of. Hitherto, the inventions mentioned have been applied almost wholly to music, but they can utter language and record it with equal fidelity. English and the English teacher will come fully into their own when "the book of words" is made intimate and vital, received through the ear and expressed by the voice.

The Perfect Teacher of English

By George Sampson

(Author of "English for the English")

(The writer, being asked to give, very shortly, his view of the Perfect Teacher of English, replied as follows)

LIKE the poet, the perfect teacher of English is born and made. His special power and impulse come by nature; his matter and technique must be acquired. Acquirements are not ability, but, being more easily displayed, they get the greater glory and manage to pass for both. To discourage the persons who claimed to be specialists in English because they could claim to be specialists in nothing else, examining authorities have stiffened the course of study with difficult fences and heavy going, and now we are in danger of having English specialists who are creditably learned, but just doggedly, irrelevantly, and almost stupidly learned. Degree and diploma examinations tend to produce the people who can study, but cannot read, who can do housemaid's work in the Palace of Art, but cannot inhabit there. Nothing here said is meant to depreciate the value of scholarship and research in English. The simple truth is that scholarship and research belong to their own realm of intellectual activity, and have no necessary relation to the qualities that make a good teacher. The perfect teacher of English must possess qualifications which are definite and important, even though they are not all normally examinable. He must have a pleasant, manageable voice. He must have good, untainted, unaffected speech. He must know enough of the science of speech to enable him to detect and cure the faults of speech in his pupils. He must have a sense of words; that is, words must be to him what colours are to the painter. In particular, he must be sensitive to "values" in words, and must have observed, critically and creatively, the use of words by the masters of writing, as a painter observes the use of colours by the masters of painting. In the same way he must have cultivated his sense of rhythm, form and structure. He must be able to make the lessons in English the friend of

clear, honest thought and clear, honest expression, and the unsleeping foe of cliché, cant, pretentiousness and muzzymindedness. He will not tolerate any glib generalizations about "*The Drama*" and "*The Short Story*" and "*The Lyric*" and "*The Essay*," nor shall his sword sleep in his hand if he finds his pupils delivering opinions which they have had no means of forming, and pronouncing upon the themes and characters of works which they have not read. He must be vowed to artistic truth and sincerity. He must be able to live by native right in the world of imaginative experience. He must have enough of the creative spirit to enable him to meet the creative artist half way, and, indeed, be so far an artist and good craftsman that he can create anew for others what he has received for himself. He must be widely and wisely read in the literature of the world for the enrichment of his experience and the deepening of his understanding. If he can enlarge his range to include enjoyment of music, painting, sculpture and architecture, so much the better; for to have life abundantly is one of the marks of true vitality. But he must not live in the realm of shadows, projections and representations. He must have character, or character will exist in vain for him. He must be able to breathe deeply of the common air and find the pageant of life the greatest of spectacles. He must have humour and geniality as well as taste, and be a man of this world as well as of the other. He must have many other qualities which I have not wit and space enough to set down. Thus modestly endowed, the perfect teacher of English must be, of course, a perfect teacher, able by effortless appeal to call out the best from his pupils, and able by natural radiation to transmit himself, his faith, his hope and his love, winningly and memorably.

Books in the Classroom

By F. H. Pritchard

(Author of "*English Extracts and Exercises*," "*Training in Literary Appreciation*," "*Studies in Literature*," etc.)

THE whole duty of the teacher of English may be summed up in the need of developing the power of expression. He has, as Thring puts it in his picturesque way, "to clear and widen the language pipe." For this purpose he must assist his pupils to gather the ideas which they are to express, for mere facility without thought is worse than useless. This he will do by helping them to cultivate a seeing eye so that they may cull ideas from their own surroundings. He will also endeavour to induce in them a right attitude to books, as the crystalized form of the highest thought, so that they may widen indefinitely horizons which would otherwise be very limited.

The importance of books to English teaching would seem to be axiomatic. Yet, from the obvious dependence of the English teacher upon them arises a subtle danger. The attitude of the individual toward books varies from positive distrust to unreasoning idolatry. The teacher is so actively engaged in fighting the first that he sometimes forgets to guard against the other, which is equally dangerous. The number of those who fear books as containing a sort of hidden magic which is beyond their ken is decreasing at such a rate as to be almost negligible. There are many more who affect to despise books as a "mighty bloodless substitute for life"—practical folk these, who believe in getting to grips with the facts and who condemn theory. The bulk of people are probably apathetic in practice if not avowedly so in principle. And the teacher rightly wages war against all these false notions. Herein lies a danger that book-worship may be fostered so that everything contained between stiff covers will take on a significance and authority which, in too many cases, it can ill support.

That this attitude is wrong should need no emphasis. Even if all books were as good as they should be, it cannot be too clearly understood that they are the means and not the end. Much harm has undoubtedly been done by the dithyrambs of over-zealous partisans of the reading habit, and the true bookman has, from time to time, been moved to protest against superlatives that injure the cause they are supposed to advance. No less a book lover than Sir Leslie Stephen was driven to administer a salutary corrective to such an unhealthy attitude. "It sometimes strikes readers of books," said he, "that literature is, on the whole, a snare and a delusion. Writers, of course, do not share that impression, and on the contrary have said a great many fine things about the charm of conversing with the choice minds of all ages, with the *innuendo*, to use the legal phrase, that they themselves modestly demand some place amongst the aforesaid choice minds. But at times we are disposed to retort upon our teachers: 'Are you not,' we observe, 'exceedingly given to humbug?'"

Undoubtedly one of the worst results of this exaggerated adulation is that it tends to produce that book-weariness which was reflected in the words of *Ecclesiastes* so long ago: "Of the making of books there is no end, and much study is a weariness to the flesh." Some who are alive to the danger have proposed to meet it by imposing arbitrary limits upon book production. Others would rigorously censor the books admitted to the class-room. My own feeling is that all such devices are futile. Many of our best thinkers have been those who at an early age were let loose among books and left to follow their own tastes. Fussiness and restriction can do nothing but harm.

Children should be encouraged to judge for themselves and not to repeat parrot-fashion the judgments of older folk. They will make mistakes, but that salutary experience will form not the least valuable part of their training. The good teacher will not try to impose his mature taste upon his pupils. He will rather rejoice when he can bring them to the point of judging for themselves even though their judgments will not square with his own. Nothing is more stimulating than the friendly comparison of verdicts after a book has been read in class. It fosters that catholicity which is the mark of the true bookman. The pupil who is sufficiently alert and interested to give a reasoned attack upon Dickens or Shakespeare should be encouraged and not condemned. Active opposition is always better than dull apathy. The teacher will give expression to his own views, not as an autocrat but as *primus inter pares*.

The cardinal truth for the pupil to learn is that reading is an active pursuit, and not passive merely. So many readers imagine that they have merely to let their eye run along the lines of the printed page and that the writer will do the rest. That is reading of the lowest order and it can produce only the smallest result. It was to this that Willmott referred when he said that "A good reader is nearly as rare as a good writer." Active reading—the only sort that can be considered worth while—certainly calls forth qualities of a very high order. The

reader meets his author as an equal. He brings his own stock of ideas and his own powers of reasoning to the task, and he is none the worse for realizing that his own part in the process of assimilation is essential. "Fully to understand a grand and beautiful thought," said Joubert, "requires, perhaps, as much time as to conceive it."

So the prime requisite for every English class-room will be a sufficient collection of books. There will be reference works so that the reader may check questions of fact; good anthologies so that he may search for parallels; and a reasonably varied and catholic selection of books of all kinds so that he can browse at will and widen his experience. The moderns will be represented to the end that the pupil may learn something of that which is being thought and written in his own day; the ancients will be there so that he can form a sure basis for his judgments and glean some idea of the continuity of thought.

A pupil trained in this way will need no artificial restrictions. He will know what he likes and will be able to give good reasons for his preferences. The uncharted sea of books will have no terrors for him. He will find his way across it unerringly and bring back what most befits him. And what he reads he will sift, condemning that which he feels to be unsound, rejecting that which fails to jump with his own humour, and doing his author the honour of bringing to his reading all the powers of which he is capable.

APRIL

Apple blossom scents the air,
All ablaze with beauty fair;
Wood and wayside rich with flowers,
Fields are green with April showers

Birds returning o'er the sea,
Fresh green leaves on every tree,
Swallows darting here and there,
Through the cool fresh April air

KATHLEEN HANKS (age 10),
The Garden School.

A FANTASY

I sat astride a crescent moon,
Low in the starlit sky,
And I heard the clouds roll soft and deep
And the night winds whisper by

And from my place I saw the earth,
Dark in the silent gloom,
And I kept watch o'er the sleeping world,
I and the stars and the moon

PAT DU CROZ (age 13),
The Garden School.

[illegible]

The Teaching of English Literature in Schools

By Geoffrey Crump, M.A.

(*Senior English Master at Bedales School, Petersfield, Hants*)

THE Study of Literature is two-fold. We are interested primarily in what it has to tell us—the Matter (as in Music, this may be emotional rather than intellectual; so perhaps I should say “its effect upon us” rather than “what it has to tell us”). This activity we may call appreciative. And thereafter (particularly if we wish to practise the art ourselves) we become interested in the way in which it is done—the Method; and this activity we may call Technical.

The appreciation of literature lies at the root of all English teaching, because on its proper development depends all use of language, and a great part of the formation of character. Literature is simply the recorded experience, intellectual, emotional, and moral, of the human race, and therefore overflows into all other departments of education. It seems perhaps, that knowledge is peculiarly the business of Science, Art of Music and Drawing, and Morals of History; but it is at all events open to question whether Literature does not take many people furthest on all these roads.

Knowledge

To take the intellectual faculty first. I see it as my prime duty to make children aware of the existence, the scope, the power and the delight of books—books of every kind, and on any subject. The child must first realize the usefulness of books on whatever subject he is interested in, by being shown how to find them and extract information from them. As he gets older, he learns to do this for himself, and I then concentrate more and more on pure literature; and here my chief object is to foster curiosity and delight. To make a child read a dull book because of the supposed educational value of doing something hard and distasteful is quite immoral. Such work

should be undertaken only when a clear result is within his view; thus it is easy to make children willingly overcome the difficulties of Chaucer's language, or Milton's allusions, if they can first be shown enough of Chaucer or Milton to make them want to. Although a child should not allow himself to be bored by a book, he must be encouraged to give books a fair trial. If his tastes are carefully watched and fed, they will lead him naturally from Tarzan to Macbeth as he grows older. It is well to encourage the reading of modern writers, who are in sympathy with the thought, and expression of to-day, and to lead the readers back along the lines that most attract them to the greater but more remote masters. I avoid teaching the history of literature as such, a certain historical perspective is necessary, but this is soon acquired as the children come to realize the relation to each other of the writers they read. I never allow children to speak or write of books in a critical manner unless they have read them, and I discourage the reading of critical books—though not explanatory ones—before the originals. Fiction is necessarily left almost entirely to individual free-time reading; drama we study as far as possible in terms of the stage (also chiefly in free time); other prose as occasion arises; poetry almost entirely by reading aloud. Other forms of literature—biography, travel, philosophy, etc.—are introduced as opportunity offers.

Art

In dealing with literature as literature an attempt must be made to awaken an emotional as well as intellectual response—an understanding that great literature appeals to the intellect through the emotions, by embodying fine thought in beautiful form. It is therefore on *form*

that I concentrate—not explicitly, but implicitly. Children should continually experience *whole* works of art, and one will lead them on to another—"Hark, hark, the lark" eventually leading, perhaps, to "The Dynasts." When I emphasize the importance of form, I do not mean insistence upon details of metre or sentence-construction, but that the child should come to feel that the capital value of literature is the wholly satisfying way in which great experiences, ideas, and imaginations are expressed. Imagination is sometimes hampered from free play by that literal-mindedness which is common among young people—the delusion that truth to fact is truer than truth to imagination. It is essential to keep a child's imagination at the highest pitch, so that he learns actually to see, hear, and feel all that the writer describes. For this purpose it is of the greatest importance that the teacher should be able to appreciate poetry, and transfer his appreciation to children of all ages by reading it aloud. This I find to be the most stimulating and economical way of "teaching" literature, it results in a real love and understanding of poetry, and does more to make children

read and write themselves than any amount of lecturing and explanation.

Morals

Not much can be said of morals here. Perhaps it is enough to say that experience proves the craving for the knowledge and understanding of good and evil to be stronger in many children even than their craving for beauty and truth. And this desire is in no way satisfied by "improving" books. Philosophy, religion, good and evil, human relations, nature, are the principal occupations of our greatest writers, and to many this is the supreme delight of literature.

Language

When children have learned to love what they read, and perhaps to follow in its tracks, then, but not before, they want to know how it is done. All the arts and crafts of the writer, dull and difficult as a separate study, become exciting when they are related to books and poems and plays the magic of which is already an experience to them. And thus they learn to express themselves—but it is no use hurrying it. The æsthetic experience, the feeling of beauty, must be there before you try to dissect it.

ROSE-LIGHT

There was rain in the day,
Dreariness the day long
Chapel, a game to play,
All day no bird-song,

Then up went the mist-cloud, the yellowness faded
For an hour while the sun set, a wild light of roses
Lit up the grey gardens, empty windows invaded
And bathed the tall buildings and cloistral closes

And a man with spectacles thought it was odd
—And a sorrow boy was changed to a god!

M F EASTON,
In the OUTLOOK, Christ's Hospital
(By kind permission of the Editor)

The Return of Grammar

By Guy N. Pocock

(Author of "*Exercises in English*," "*Grammar in a new Setting*," etc.)

LISTEN to the Parable of the Sagacious Parent. There was once a Sagacious Parent who had twin sons; and for them, being of an age to learn, there was found a Pedagogue. Now it happened that when their birthday came round each was presented with a beautiful working toy, to their exceeding pleasure. And the Pedagogue watched to see what they would do. And it came to pass that when they had played with their toys for a time, one of the twins went and fetched a glass jar and placed the toy therein, thinking it too beautiful to be touched. And when he had looked at it for a space, he became bored with it, even unto tears, and went straightway and sought his pleasure elsewhere. And the other twin, being of a curious mind, took his toy to pieces to see how it worked; and when he had found out, he strove diligently to put it together again. Many hours he strove, and though he did not altogether succeed, he found great delight therein. Then came the unwise Pedagogue, and haled him before his father, saying: "This boy deserves punishment, for he has done thus and thus, while his brother, who has done so and so, merits reward." Then the Sagacious Parent laughed; and he took the toy from under the glass jar and gave it to the twin with the curious mind; and the unwise Pedagogue he dismissed before the going down of the sun.

We will leave this parable uninterpreted in the hope that its meaning is self-evident, and proceed. By the age of five or six, a boy, by the grace of God and sheer power of imagination, has learnt to talk sufficiently well for his needs. Long before he has reached that age, one may have observed him correcting his own mistakes "by ear": changing "I tooked it" to "I took it," and the like; but that, of course, does not mean that he is endowed with an innate knowledge of

correct grammatical usage. To expect him to explain would be as futile as to ask the Raven to parse "Nevermore," and for an exactly similar reason. Later on by dint of careful teaching he has mastered the rudiments of reading and writing, and often shews in a childish way considerable power of appreciation and expression. I have known many children who could write poetry with more of the true magic in it than their elders. So far so good.

Then comes a change. Till now the youngster's curious and inquisitive mind has been satisfied by answers to his constant What? and Why? Now a third question comes pushing to the fore, and How? takes permanent precedence. For while What? was answered by a name, and Why? too often by a barren dictum, How? must be answered scientifically, or the youngster must find out for himself.

Now, and from now onwards, when the curiosity is hot, and the hunger for knowledge of the Truth is keen—now is the time to teach him the science of language, not as a number of hard and fast rules which language has to obey, and the wretched boy has to get by rote, but as the Romance of Words, the usage which began before the day of the Cave Dwellers, grew up with the growth of society, and at long last was studied and analysed by the Grammarians. A wonderful and fascinating story to the boy, the romance of words: each word with its job to do, its place to fill, its proper relation to other words, recalling the team work which the boy is beginning to learn in his own games. This is Grammar: and it is all so logical, so scientific and reasonable; and if it is rightly presented the boy will seize upon it with enthusiasm. If Grammar is administered without sympathy and understanding, and the boy is made to swallow it in cold, heavy lumps,

of course the result is indigestion. In old days it was almost always thus. But we have changed all that now.

The fact is that Grammar, after an interval of unpopularity, is coming into its own again. For a time it was considered dull and useless, and was shunned as the "wall-flower" of English studies. It was the dowdy, Victorian garb that caused all the trouble. It has now returned—but with a difference. For as the boys and girls grew up it became increasingly apparent that good writing and speaking could not get on without it. To introduce young people to the best in Literature and to say "Now get on with

it," is not enough. The love of good books, and the habit of judicious reading will do very much, but not everything. For without some knowledge of language as a science, some understanding of its structure, the pupil can never build for himself, never pass beyond the slipshod stage and achieve a style. How do the best speakers and writers use the language? That is what the student wants to know; and that is exactly what Grammar has to tell him. And when Grammar is presented reasonably, freshly, and with understanding, he will receive it with delight.

THE SPIRIT OF THE EVENING

Hush!
See adown the twilight lawn the wind is sweeping
 genily,
Shaking all the dew from out the roses' golden
 hearts,
Breathlessly he's waiting where forget-me-nots are
 sleeping,
Watching where the swaying fern in dewy
 branches parts

Stepping down the shadows comes the Spirit of the
 Evening,
In her dusky curling hair the Star of Beauty
 gleams,
Faines run before her spreading flowers in her
 pathway,
Blackbirds are her heralds and her eyes are full
 of dreams

All before her tiny feet the wind is drifting roses,
Rhododendron blooms are falling softer than a
 sigh;
Hush! the wind is rustling thro' the cedars' feathery
 branches,
Whisp'ring . . . for the Spirit of the Evening's
 passing by

JOYCE M PATTERSON,
Luton Modern School for Girls.

Note—This is the poem, referred to by Miss Sheldon,
which won the Poetry Society's prize —ED

SHEILA MILL

Jenifer, Jenifer, are you waiting for me still,
Underneath the Cornish moor, down by little Sheila
 Mill?
Is the thyme scent piercing sweet, and the honey-
 suckle gold,
Tinged with pink-like sunset skies, as of old, as of
 old?

Are the irises as brave by the waters of the stream,
And forget-me-nots still there, blue as any summer
 dream?
Does the clover, red and white, clothe the field
 beyond the hill,
And the bindweed's silver bells, ring they still,
 ring they still?

Are the pebbles smooth and bright in the dark
 enchanted caves,
With the white foam flying free, break the dancing,
 laughing waves
Shadowy and dreamily, in the moonlit on the shore,
Dance the silver-footed faines, as of yore, as of
 yore?

Jenifer, Jenifer, I will come unto you soon,
With the setting of the sun and the rising of the
 moon,
Where your steady eyes of grey, calling, calling to
 me still,
Wait for me in friendly beauty, down by little Sheila
 Mill

MARION SCHOFIELD,
Luton Modern School for Girls

Note—This poem was highly commended by the
Poetry Society —ED

English Unscrambled

By Carleton Washburne

(*Superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Illinois, U.S.A.*)

"English," as taught in schools, tends to be a general hodge podge—a miscellaneous agglomeration of unrelated elements thrown together under a common name. Not infrequently a child receives a grade in "English" with no pretence of diagnosis as to which of the various skills or abilities subsumed under this non-descript heading needs specific attention. The generalised term "English" as used in schools in both America and England is of little value; it causes muddy thinking and blunderbus pedagogy.

Spelling requires a host of almost independent memories.

Punctuation, capitalization, and grammar require a limited number of moderately generalized concepts

Penmanship requires motor skill

Style calls for originality—for qualities diametrically opposite to the stereotyped memories of spelling

Oral expression should be primarily based on having something to say, and being conscious of this rather than of oneself.

Reading is itself a miscellany—a combination of correct habits of eye muscles, of specific information, of several types of interpretive ability, and of emotional attitudes. Oral reading ability requires certain types of training; silent reading ability, others, ranging from Ruskin's rolling of each word under one's tongue, to rapid scanning

And "literature" is partly fact-knowledge as to authors and their works, and partly the almost entirely unrelated ability to get intelligent enjoyment out of what one reads.

This extremely sketchy analysis of some of the divergent items included under the head of "English" is sufficient to show the need for specific pedagogy—for a scientific analysis and scientific statement as to the exact knowledges and skills each

child is to master, and an equally clear-cut statement as to the types of appreciation and opportunity where children may legitimately differ from each other and which, therefore, will be free from examinations and grading.

A crude beginning in this direction has been made in the Winnetka public schools*. While far from being a model, this attempt may serve to illustrate the basic principle.

Silent reading ability we develop by giving each child many books to read that *fit his reading ability*. That ability is carefully measured in advance and books of tested difficulty† are made available to him. We know from careful laboratory experiments at the University of Chicago and elsewhere, that books too difficult for a child are actually deleterious to the rhythmic muscular movement of the eyes, fundamental to good reading. And we know from the Winnetka investigation that to give a child a book too difficult or too easy tends to destroy his interest in reading.

So each child reads independently books suited to his reading skill and to his interests—at least fifteen books a year. He is tested on his general comprehension of each book, simply and informally, after its completion.

Oral reading is usually done to the teacher alone, not to the whole class—the teacher can only hear one child read at a time by any method. The child who is a poor reader orally gets more practice and help than does the good reader—a situation that would have to be reversed for the sake of the class were the child to read aloud to all.

* "Public schools" is used in the American sense—the free, tax-supported schools of the community

† "What Children Like to Read—the Winnetka Graded Book List," by Carleton Washburne and Mabel Vogel Rand McNally and Co., Chicago

The teaching of spelling in Winnetka is based on some of the extensive research that has been done in America to discover which words in the English language are most commonly used and the correct spelling of which, therefore, is most necessary. Such of these words as have been shown by such research to be appropriate to children of a given age and ability are dictated to them *before study*. On each child's copy of the spelling lists* every word he has missed is checked, thus constituting an individual spelling list of the words he needs to learn. Each child has a spelling partner who dictates his words to him and to whom he dictates in turn, for study and test purposes. Each child learns to spell the particular words which he does not know.

Punctuation and capitalization needs have likewise been determined by research as to present day business usage and frequency of occurrence. Here, too, each individual must master a common body of knowledge—or group of skills. The same is true of the small amount of formal grammar which is of any general use.

In penmanship each child must practise until he reaches an established and objective—and universally attainable—standard of speed and legibility.

These things—silent and oral reading ability; spelling; punctuation, capitalization, grammar, and penmanship, differ widely as to materials of instruction, techniques of teaching, and means of testing; but they are alike in that each requires common mastery by all children, and, *ipso facto*, strictly individual work.

The same is true of the mastery of certain basic sight words and sound values in primary reading, and probably of a certain minimal amount of fact knowledge in the history of literature—that Shakespeare, not Tennyson, for instance, wrote Hamlet.

But when we come to style and creative expression in writing, we do not want like-mindedness; we do not want standardiza-

tion. We want originality, creativeness, self-expression. And these things cannot be graded and marked. A mark or grade assumes a common standard which all children should attain. There is no such common standard in this field, and it would be most undesirable to have one. This is one of the places where stimulus and opportunity are the means used, not technical training and drill. Here we want freedom for each individual to vary in his own way—stimulated by what others have done, but never imitative; criticised where criticism fertilizes the imagination, but not when it sterilizes.

Oral expression is, and we believe should be, the outcome of having something to express. Discussions in self-government assemblies and committees; impromptu dramatizations; co-operative enterprises and projects where children have to communicate with each other—such things necessitate oral expression and give practice in it without centering the child's attention on himself. Self-consciousness is the arch-enemy of oral expression. "Expressing" to order, under a fire of criticism as to one's posture, one's diction, one's enunciation, one's voice, makes for self-consciousness, not self-expression. Rich social living in a stimulating school environment brings out the ability to say freely, and at least intelligibly, what one has to say. The manner of expression is secondary in importance and is handled individually in accordance with the particular child's needs, *after* he has found freedom in self-expression.

And in the love and appreciation of literature, we again avoid standards. "Here are books," we say. "Read and enjoy them. Listen to this passage—Don't you like it?"

The sort of spontaneous, informal analysis that comes from group discussion of what the teacher—or a good reader—has read aloud, is legitimate; but never the detailed, formal analysis which ruins one's enjoyment of what is read and is so common in literature classes.

In general, we are attempting to recog-

*The lists for all grades are compiled in the "Individual Speller," by Carleton Washburne, World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y.

nize that "English" consists of many things. Some require common mastery; each of these must be learned individually by the children according to a technique peculiar to itself. Other phases of "English" belong in the realm of creative self-expression and call for stimulus and free opportunity instead of drills and standards. Still others belong to the field of appreciation; they, too, should be free from tests and marks and promotion.

standards—the function of the teacher here is merely to expose the children to them and to his or her enthusiasm.

It is through some such analysis and discrimination among the different elements of "English," treating each in a manner appropriate to itself, that our thinking and our teaching of this important group of subjects can be clarified.

Our Cover

The lettering on the cover of this number was specially designed during the summer holidays by S. J. Woolven, a pupil of the Brighton, Hove and Sussex Grammar School. We would like to thank sincerely both him and Mr. S. S. Davies, A.M.C., National Bronze Medallist, Senior Art Master at this school, who enabled us to secure his services, and to congratulate the latter upon the fact that Brighton Grammar School was one of the half-dozen secondary schools whose work was chosen to represent this country at the International Art Exhibition at Prague this summer.

ANACHRONISMS

When Caesar ordered chocolate
In the Savoy one day,
He made a great sensation,
As one might fairly say
When Alfred burnt the eclairs he
Was not mending his bow
He was listening on the wireless
To news from ZLO

Said William the Conqueror,
With hauteur in his tone,
Unto a Saxon servant
"Turn on my gramophone!"
But Nelson reached the climax
On the first Trafalgar Day,
When ordering his Rolls-Royce car
To take him to the fray

P SHEARD, Rotherham Grammar School.

If I were a bird
And lived in a nest
I'd like to fly
To the very West

If I were a pen
I'd write a letter
And ask my mistress
To make me better.

If I were a fairy
I'd fly all around
And stop at the roses
And drink the honey

If I were a woodpecker
I'd peck at a tree,
And that would be enough
Food for me

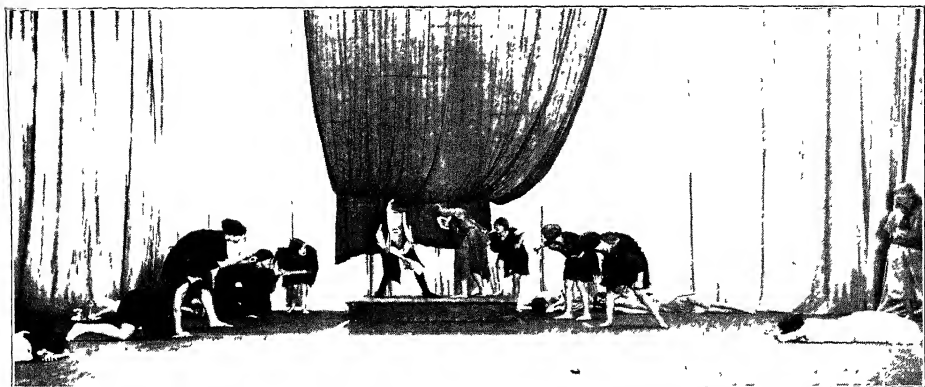
If I were a house
I'd have people in me running around
All day long
Wouldn't it be fun?

If I were a squirrel
Before it was winter
I'd get all the nuts
And put them somewhere
Before the snow covered them all

Author, aged six.
The Community School, St. Louis, U.S.A.



CARLETON WASHBURNE
(Superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Ill)

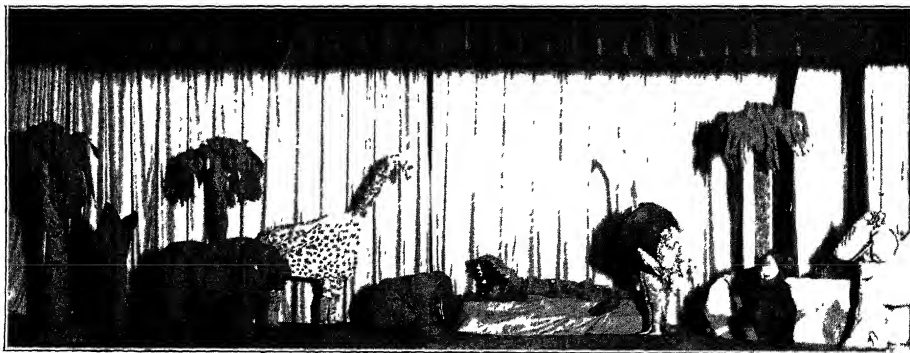


Informal dramatizations written by the children themselves and costumed and staged by them form one of the most common types of oral expression in the Winnetka Schools. This photograph is a scene from a Columbus play, where Columbus is being tempted by sirens and other supernatural beings to forsake his mad venture.

In connection with the study of Holland the children transformed their classroom into a Dutch market. The planning of the booths, of the costumes, of the things they were going to sell—the entire enterprise—required discussion and therefore stimulated oral expression.



ORAL EXPRESSION AT WINNETKA



"How the Elephant got his Trunk," by Kipling, stimulated the children to creating costumes and scenery for a presentation of this play. The words were never written, the children paraphrasing Kipling freely as they went through the action of the play in their animal costumes. This, too, is an example of the type of oral expression stimulated in the Winnetka Schools.



The Garden School Book of Verse and Prose Lyrics ✦

WOODCUT BY LAURIE KENNETH, aged 17

Pupil of The Garden School, Bucks

CRICKET

On the first half-holiday of the term our reporter betook himself to the playing field to witness a most amazing match between 2A and 2B. Some delay was caused at the start owing to the fact that the captain of the 2A team was found smashing ink-pots in 4B classroom and would not desist. A— at length consented to captain the 2A team, and having won the fight that decided who would go in first went to the wicket informing the others that they might "come in as they chose." B—, the leader of the 2B, said, "Bags I bowling." C— replied, "Bags I the other end," and the rest of the team all announced their intention of keeping wicket. It being impossible for nine people to perform this duty at the same time, a lively discussion ensued, which was at length ended by B— pulling and pushing his men into position.

A— having taken his stand at the wicket, B— commenced the attack by bowling a succession of "wides" which were fielded alternately by slip and short-leg. After the fourth delivery, he retired and lay down beside the wicket; whereupon C— sent up an underhand ball which took off the stump. "B—" cheers rent the air. A—, however, stated that he was not ready; but on being given "out" he threatened to assault the umpire, and walked off declaring the whole thing a "bally swindle."

C— now taking over, succeeded in dispatching two of his opponents for one run. D— was then sent in with instructions to "slog," but being apparently not clear as to what was to be the object of his doughty strokes, he slogged his own bats into the wicket-keeper's face, and retired almost in tears.

After that the batting side began to improve, E— and F— making a magnificent stand, during which the score rose from one to seven. The scores were as follows:—

A—, b C—	0
C—, both legs b w.	1
D—, hit wicket	0
E—, b C—	4
F—, not out	2
The rest of the team would not bat.	
Extras	4
Grand Total	11

2B's Team did not bat owing to the fact of there being none to field, 2A's team having apparently adjourned to the tuckshop for refreshments at the close of their innings, and forgotten to return.

From a Middle School Form Magazine,
Brighton, Hove and Sussex Grammar School.

I, Benjamin of Jerusalem, being a shepherd, have much time for my own thoughts and meditations, for my work often leaves me with hours of time which I may call my own. And though I have said that I am of Jerusalem, I do not live in the city itself, but just without the walls, and my work is in the meadows, and on the hills, and in lonely valleys. You have asked me to voice my opinions concerning this Jesus of Nazareth, who calls himself the Christ. Many men say that he stirs up the people against the Romans and sows discontent. But I, for one, having seen and heard him, know that he is one not likely to do these things (although, let it be said, I myself like not these Romans, with their heavy taxes).

This Jesus is a slender, mild-looking man, with a gentle voice. He heals the sick and does good wherever he goes. I have heard his preaching myself, and he speaks so that even a simple shepherd like myself can understand his meaning. His words are full of meaning and his ideas righteous. For if they were not so, why would all these great multitudes come from afar to hear him? The Pharisees are bitter against him, but—(this is in secret, so tell it to no man, for it would arouse the wrath of the Pharisees)—these Pharisees are not so good as they make people think. This Jesus calls them hypocrites, and says that they are merely trying to get the people's good opinion, when they pray loudly at the street corners and make much noise. And my own opinion differs from this Nazarene's but little, for I have seen, thought upon, and reasoned out these things myself. He works miracles (for I have seen them). From whence then does he get his power, unless it be from God? Surely not from Beelzebub, for Jesus does only good and not evil.

He says that he is the Son of the living God. Men say that he speaks blasphemy in doing this. But was it not prophesied by Isaiah, the prophet? And did not John the Baptist foretell his coming? All that has been prophesied of him by Isaiah has come to be, except his death. Now that he has been delivered into the hands of Pontius Pilate by the treachery of Judas Iscariot, the Pharisees and the people are crying out for him to be crucified. Verily, I say, if he is slaughtered, the Pharisees will regret it before many years. For has not his religion been sown among both Jews and Gentiles? Will it grow up, and prosper and increase? We know not, but Jesus says so. I believe it will come to pass, and then all the prophecies of Isaiah and others will be fulfilled. S B CARTER

From the OUTLOOK, Christ's Hospital.
(By kind permission of the Editor.)

Note—The author was not yet 12 when he wrote this.—ED

Some Notes on the Teaching of Spelling

By Dr. William Boyd

(University of Glasgow. President of the Scottish Branch of the N.E.F.)

AFTER arithmetic, spelling is the subject (if it be a "subject") which causes most trouble to both teacher and scholar at the elementary stage of school life. A moderate measure of spelling reform would entirely remove the difficulty for all but a small group of abnormal children. But even without that it is possible to reduce very considerably the expenditure of time and energy usually devoted to spelling, and give it its proper insignificance in the scholastic scheme.

Minimum Essentials in Spelling

The first thing needed is to distinguish between common and uncommon words in defining the spelling task of the school. At present the teacher takes upon himself the obligation of getting the pupils to spell correctly any word that may turn up in ordinary usage. Considering that there are some 20,000 non-technical words in the language of books, newspapers and correspondence, each of which must be known individually if the spelling is to be sure, that is a formidable task, "a burden grievous to be borne." The only way of escape is through a definite limitation of the task to a spelling knowledge of the most common words. The relative frequency of English words has been made the subject of two monumental investigations (Professor Thorndike, *The Teacher's Word List*, Columbia University; E. Horn, *Ten Thousand Words Most Commonly Used in Writing*, University of Iowa. Cf. Sandiford's *Educational Psychology*, ch. xvi). Such investigations show that there are two or three thousand words much more frequently employed than all the rest. Indeed a prepared list of (say) 3,000 most common words will be found to include fully 90 per cent. of the vocabulary in an intelligent man's reading, and an even larger percentage of his writing vocabulary. The moral is plain.

Let the school concentrate on the spelling of the most common words and make sure that every pupil has had a thorough grounding in them by the age of 10 or 11: as for the other words, encourage the development of power to deal with them, but regard mistakes in them very lightly. It may be added that *The Standard Spelling List* of 2,400 words, prepared by myself for the Research Committee of the Educational Institute of Scotland, and published by Messrs. Harrap (subsequently extended into *The Longer Standard Spelling List* of 3,000 words) was constructed with the help of Scottish teachers for the purpose of limiting the spelling work of the schools in this fashion.

The Order of Presentation

The usual teaching of spelling is quite unsystematic. Some teachers group related words together and teach contrasted forms at the same time. But the practice of learning words as they occur haphazard in the reading lesson is more common. There may be something to be said for this casual procedure in the later stages when the business in hand is the widening of word knowledge, but it is pedagogically bad when the child is forming its first spelling habits. With all the picturesque variety of our spelling, a considerable majority of the words we use are regular. It may be a counsel of perfection to urge that in the first stages of reading and spelling the regularities should be stressed and the irregularities held back (so far as possible) till the basic spelling habits are formed. But it should be possible at any rate for the teacher to teach spelling with the regularities more in mind than the bothersome abnormal words. The principle that may be suggested in this connection is that homonyms are better learned separately. Alternatives presented together are apt to confuse.

Method of Learning

It is impossible to traverse the whole subject of method, but three principles based on an analysis of the spelling process may be indicated.

In the first place it must be kept in mind that we only need to spell when we write, and that we cannot really spell a word until we can write it in a meaningful context. Therefore *from the beginning*, whatever other lessons they get in spelling children should learn spelling by writing: the transcription of passages within their reading powers, simple dictation, free composition. The learning of words as detached units may sometimes be necessary, but it should always be kept subordinate to some use of the words that involves spelling, and preferably to their use in writing.

In the second place it is to be noted that an essential feature in the spelling of any word in any language is the rendering of the constituent sounds of the word as script symbols: it is an attempt, as we say, to spell words as they sound. This applies to words like "bough" and "cough," and "though" just as much as to their more normal brethren. Whether we are remembering the spelling of familiar words or trying to hit on the spelling of new and unfamiliar ones, our first approach to the business is a phonetic analysis. The fact that some English words are irregular makes this analysis less sure as a guide than it ought to be, and requires caution in regard to the spelling of any new word until we have seen how the sounds in it are conventionally represented. The practical application is that the learner should always

pronounce with precision, and perhaps syllabify, the words he is spelling, and should articulate the letters as he writes them down.

In the third place, it is necessary to clear away the uncertainty as to which of the variant spellings is to be followed in the case of all words not phonetically simple, and therefore all dubious words should be looked at attentively. Sound and see—or see and sound—then write: that is the order of procedure. The impression of the word as a whole, such as comes with intelligent reading when children are not kept too long noticing letters, is quite as important from this point of view as the more exact and detailed impression formed by special attention to particular words.

From the three principles enumerated it follows that the most valuable training in spelling is got from dictation. It is usually said that dictation is a method of testing rather than of teaching spelling. This is altogether wrong. Once the children have learned to spell some of the more common words and can write with some fluency there is no more valuable exercise than dictation. Words likely to cause difficulty which have not been met before should either have commoner words substituted for them, or be put up on the blackboard beforehand. After that, writing to dictation comes to be the reproducing and fixing of known words and the reduction to letter form on the basis of a personal analysis of unknown words, and in combination with previous reading involves all the essential processes in proper spelling.

MARTHA

Once once upon a time,
Like beauty that cannot fade,
Martha would sit in the twilight,
Which God had made

D. G. BALL

She told us of the fairy glen
Where faeries danced and sang
From late at night till early morn
In all their loveliness

N. MOTTESHEAD

Of knight and distressed damsel,
Rich king and beggar maid,
Of heroes facing fearful odds
Valiant and unafraid

These were the things she told us,
Over and over again;
And they never failed to enthral us
In the hazel glen

E. B. HORSFALL.
Rotherham Grammar School.

(After reading *Walter de la Mare*)

Home-made Plays

By C. W. Bailey, M.A.

(Head Master, Holt Secondary School, Liverpool)

It is extraordinary how your early hobbies remain or recur. A part ownership in a toy-theatre by the writer when a boy of ten has had much to do with a whole series of school plays. What a thrill was it also when one saw after a wildly exciting trip to Town from a country village, at a *matinée* performance, the wonderful "Tempest"! Caliban's talons can be heard rattling yet, and since one had just learned to play chess the scene with Ferdinand and Miranda,

"Sweet lord, you play me false."

"No, my dearest love,

I would not for the world "

remains tingling in the memory. There is a parable in this reminiscence. It is what *we do* and like that we remember. So when arranging for the School Play let a lot of people have jobs to do. A big caste is better than a small one. And there are so many kinds of things to be done! There may be the silhouette of a Greek ship to be cut out of three-ply wood, as in the illustration, or the wondrous helmets of Achilles and his friends to be moulded in paper and finished with rare plumes of vegetable fibre. Some of the Science Sixth with lanterns may be required for the stage lighting by flood or spot light. Then there are the ladies and gentlemen of the *corps de ballet* who require a special training all by themselves and who are to appear as the rats in "Dick Whittington" or the maidens of Nausica in the *Odyssey* Play.

Should you want a magic mirror which will "crack from side to side" for a tableau of the Lady of Shalot you will find a small boy with a piece of new tin and a streak of whitewash will do the trick for you.

There are always new opportunities for service cropping up. One lame boy, most anxious to be "in" a play, found huge delight at last in being fitted appropriately with the part of Vulcan—forging the Shield of Achilles. In fact, he begged to be allowed to do this. He was big and strong and did admirably. Occasionally the enthusiasm of the pupils leads to difficulties. We had a hearty laugh at a scene-painter who, having to use the floor of the gymnasium and who was painting a blue backcloth, painted all round himself, he standing in the middle of the canvas until he was marooned in the blue and had to be rescued. But to miss the fun is to miss all. You may have occasional shocks, as when a boy paints his friend's nose with aluminium paint like a Corporation lamp-post: but you have most resourceful and willing co-operators in your undertaking, ready at a moment's notice to undertake or understudy a new part, or to suggest an improvement.

One has always felt that the *great stories of the world* ought to be dramatised for children and be performed by children. In fact, some of the home-made plays with which the writer has been connected have been in revolt from the theatrical revue which has taken the place of the pantomime following the fairy tale, which formerly gave so much pleasure to the young people. These experiments range over Hans Andersen's stories (e.g. "The Wild Swan"); "The Arabian Nights" (e.g. "Aladdin"); "King Arthur," arranged from the "Idylls of the King," and plays giving the story thread of the "Iliad and Odyssev." After all, a story that has cheered so many generations of children is good material for a school play. And all the better if it is home-made.

Literature At Home

By Mrs. A. Hutton Radice

(Author of "*The New Children*," "*The Book of Shapes*," "*Home and School*," etc)

ONE tires of the assumption that culture is catching: that if children are placed with enthusiasts they will become enthusiastic, and that if they live with people who pursue knowledge they will love knowledge, without more ado. Let us hear what Trott has to say about it in André Lichtneberger's "*La Petite Soeur de Trott*."

"Miss vient de s'en aller. Quelle chance! C'est extraordinaire comme elle reste longtemps. On n'imagine pas ce que ça peut durer, cette heure qu'elle passe en tête à tête avec Trott. . . . Quand Miss a fermé son cahier et se saisit de son ombrelle ou de son parapluie, le cœur de Trott déborde d'une allégresse surhumaine, telle celle des Israélites s'enfuyant d'Egypte."

There is another side to the same matter. After many years of reading and writing in a professional capacity, few things nauseate me so much as the sight of print. Yet this nausea does not affect my children. If one brings home a book, say, on university examination statistics, one's children may as likely as not seize on it and spend a happy evening examining the graphs and formulae which it contains. They pore over Whitaker's Almanack, *Punch*, and Shakespeare, Conrad and Stevenson, "*The Scout's Annual*," and "*The Principles of Foreign Exchange*."

It seems to me all the more doubtful whether children catch the reading propensity from their parents, since they read things which their parents eschew: books on colloid chemistry, and the comic pages in the daily pictorials. Out of the vast amount of print which they scan, a certain quantity becomes their own: one comes to know, in turning out bookshelves during their absence, which books one must not give away, and as time goes on the quality of the books which they

want to keep improves. They may gladly part with some expensive Christmas gift book, and hold on to a paper-covered school anthology of prose and verse.

Much but not all depends on what reading-matter looks like. They may pass by for years the family set of standard novels with uniform bindings and solid print, and a way of snapping shut unless held open; and devour the same books if they come with the print well spaced out, broad margins, and coloured plates. A little square brown "*Westward Ho!*" which came from America was long despised, but an English school abridgment in a grey and gold binding was read as soon as offered. "*The Last Days of Pompeii*" in a cheap English series of classics was never looked at, though "*The Swiss Family Robinson*" in the same series was read and re-read. When "*The Last Days of Pompeii*" appeared from America in a large quarto volume with pictures of eruptions and oracles, it was taken to all hearts.

Publishers for children, especially in America, are beginning to realize the value of leaded lines, margins, broken paragraphs, side-heads, and everything that whitens the page. Covers have potent charms, and the brown paper or pink calico covers which the school library uses are the grave-clothes of many books. The picture-jacket has a special attraction for children in that when it gets ragged and comes off there is a new book underneath.

No doubt the main reason why so many young people grow up indisposed to read anything but magazines is that there are so few books in their homes. But even where there are books, the shelves want frequent rearranging. If books stand too long in sight they become a mere part of the furniture. Better keep half the household stock in reserve in the attic,

and change all the shelves four or five times a year. If the young people are allowed to choose what shall be put away and what put out, they come to estimate very fairly what they will want to look at in the next few months. What I wrote on this subject in "Home and School" (Partridge), giving a long list of cheap books for children's reading, was stigmatised as amateurish in the *Preparatory Schools Review*, and when I pointed out that it was in fact based on observation of young amateurs of books I had another scolding. No doubt it would seem more systematic and certain to have 400 best books chosen by a committee and served out in graded order weekly through a child's school life, but the free browser reads a book a day, and the best books among them. At the same time he learns how to skim, how to dig, how to compare

and reject—in short how to master books, not to be mastered by them.

The expense of providing enough books to give children sufficient variety need frighten no parent who will go to the educational publishers and buy school reading books at 1/6 or 2/6 in place of books published for the Christmas market at three or four times the price. Let fathers (and mothers too) neither smoke nor drink while their children are growing up; let there be less giving of fancy presents in the family; and instead let us watch our children's tastes and interests, and give them what they are interested in while they are interested in it. I shall lay myself open to another scolding from the teaching profession if I suggest that if everyone did this systematically less money need be spent on sending children to school.

SLEEPING BEAUTY

Hush! She is sleeping among the red roses,
We must not wake her Oh, hush! Do not speak
Only the wind where our Princess reposes
Gently caresses her eyes and her cheek

Come, we must leave her, the fairies are creeping
Softly around her and kissing her brow,
Safely they'll guard her while she lies there sleeping,
—Only the Prince may awaken her now.

Soon he will come with the day's silver dawning,
To kiss her slim hands and to bid her arise,
Swiftly he'll come with a new golden morning,
—Only Prince Michael may open her eyes

Leave her alone where the birches are shaking,
Leave her asleep with the shy frightened deer,
Come, come away now the moon is awaking,
—Only Prince Michael may venture so near

JOYCE M PATTERSON,
Luton Modern School for Girls.

Note—This is the poem, referred to by Miss Sheldon,
which was highly commended by the Poetry
Society.—Ed

"THE WORLD IS TOO MUCH WITH US"

God, of course, was sincerely benevolent when he created flowers with scent. The poet, whoever he was, who said "A rose by any other name . . ." was benevolently sincere. Yet it appears that both have been mistaken. God made a mistake in giving us free delight. The scents of His flowers are ignored, all their perfumes are unsmelt, all, except of those expensive bouquets that adorn the lives of the rich. For He gave them free, so they are unheeded. But gentlemen like M Coty have stolen a march on God. They put His scents, no longer fresh and living, but dried and artificial, they put them in wondrous little pots and sell them for much money. The scents of M Coty are praised, the scents of God are forgotten. As for the rose and its other name, there too is error. For the rose on a tree is called a rose, ignored, the rose in the pot is called "Ashes of Love"; many pots are sold. God and the poet are out of place in the time of commerce. But perhaps they always have been. Did Eve press the petals of the newly-created poppy and call them "Posies of Passion"?

CARYL, in the OUTLOOK, Christ's Hospital.
(By kind permission of the Editor)

My Experience of "New" Methods in English

By Old Boy

OF the types of boy who attend the modern grammar or secondary school there are very roughly three: the brilliant boy; the worker; and the slacker. The slackers or lazy boys are usually grouped together, branded with the very harmful name of "worthless," and left to themselves almost entirely untaught. At least this was so at the school I attended for five years, and which I left three years ago; and having been a slacker I know a little about the matter.

Although I was a member of a "C" form for a period, having sunk from a higher form of workers and brilliants, I and the rest of the form were not entirely bereft of initiative or intellectual appreciation. I myself within a year of leaving proved competent enough to qualify successfully for a journalistic position on one of England's leading provincial newspapers.

I owe my success entirely to the manner in which I was taught how to read, write, and appreciate my native language by a master who came to our school to teach English a year before I left. I may say that our form was one of the first to be handed over to him "to see what he could do with it." Had we not been handed over to him I might now be hewing coal!

I remember that when he had read the first essay I wrote for this new master he simply told me that I was an abominable speller, but that some day I might be able to write my own language tolerably well, and that I was a fool not to try. I knew I was a fool, but I was not aware of the fact that some day I might possibly be able to write; and from that time I developed a curious urge for writing, for writing about anything and everything. Instead of being told that I must do "what I was set," this unusual master made it clear that I could do exactly as I chose in this matter, spend all the English lessons in writing, and that he would do all he could to assist me. He did

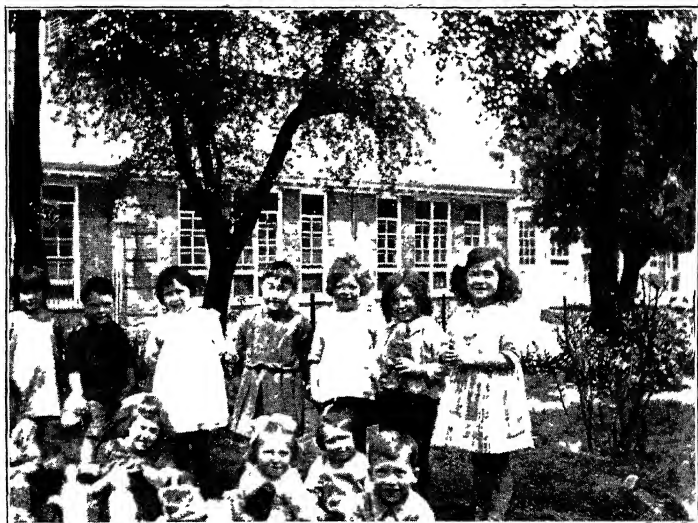
He seldom made any corrections, but offered innumerable suggestions; suggestions moreover which in no way tended to inhibit the ardour of the writer. I think he realized what a temperamental nature the boy has.

We dropped dictation after the first dictate he gave us, as one of the boys mentioned that he considered it was a waste of time, to which the master, to our astonishment, agreed. It is a pertinent fact that of all the masters who had tried to persuade me to write King's English one and all had seemed quite content to comment alone on my unorthodox spelling without apparently paying any attention to the subject matter of an essay, however original and significant it may have been.

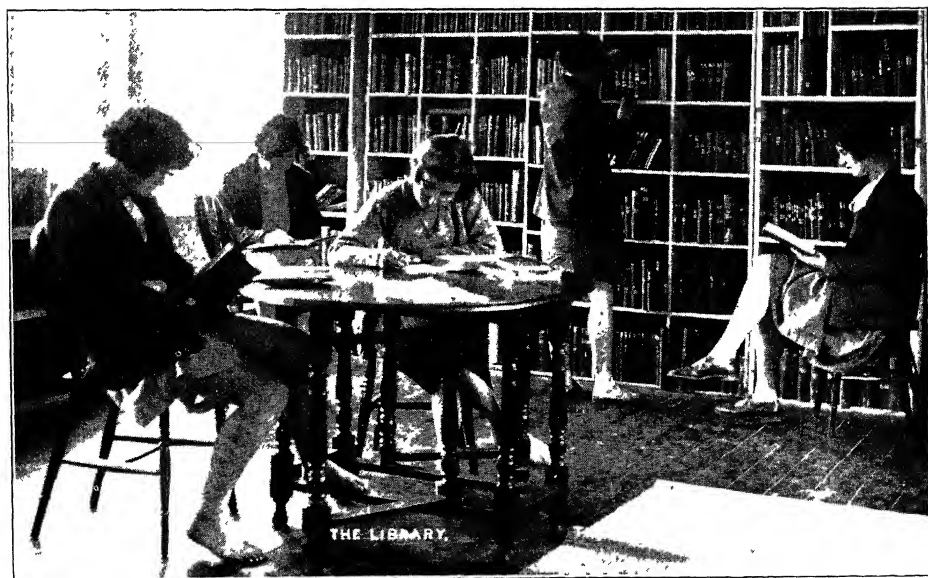
Again, we were taught for the first time that the actual time we took over writing anything was a secondary consideration, and we were usually allowed to devote as long as we chose to our efforts. I well remember contemplating with delight the prospect of an unlimited period in which to tabulate the crude phantasies of my shallow brain, which for years had been immured, having had little chance of contending against the strict and conservative methods by which we had been goaded into writing thirty lines in half an hour.

And gradually I learned to write, or at least I arrived at the realisation of what was required of the writer; and this was half the battle. It may seem paradoxical, but by learning to write I discovered the art of reading, the art of reading over and over again a paragraph until it rings with the music and rhythm of English which has been construed by a master hand.

[We understand that the author of the above article, young though he still is, is already well on the way to being an authority on the writings of George Borrow.—ED.]

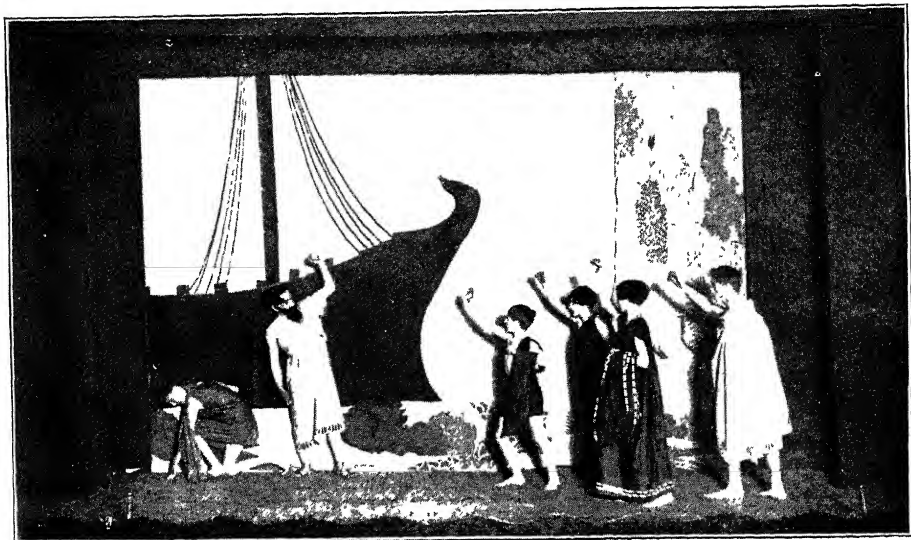


DENMARK HILL (L C C) SCHOOL, CAMBERWELL, LONDON
Where many " English " lessons are given



THE GARDEN SCHOOL, LANE END, BUCKS

TABLEAUX from THE RETURN OF ODYSSEUS
A School Play founded on the Odyssey
Holt Secondary School, Liverpool



Odysseus takes his sailors away from the Land of the Lotus Eaters



The Slaying of the Suitors

Notes from the Schools

(Owing to the summer holidays many teachers were away at the time when this issue of the magazine was being prepared, so that we are not able to give a really representative selection of notes on the schools, and a number of schools that are doing interesting work in English receive no mention. We are especially sorry that there is no account of the splendid work at the John Burroughs School, St. Louis, or of Mr. Hughes Mearns at the Lincoln School, U.S.A.)

ENGLISH UNDER THE DALTON PLAN

West Green School, Tottenham

English, so far as results are concerned, has been the most successful of all the subjects of the curriculum taken under Dalton Plan conditions during the eight years of the experiment. It is as well that it should have been so, for, of all the subjects of the elementary school, English is perhaps the most humanising, and is certainly the basis of national education.

The amount of available time devoted to all subjects, which are treated in a Dalton way, is twenty hours per week, of which ten, or one half, are devoted to the study of Literature and of formal English (Grammar and Composition). Almost the whole of these ten hours is occupied by individual study, though some portion of them is given to class work.

The individual work in both these branches of English takes place in different rooms. Although the question of accommodation enters into the arrangement, the main reason for separating these two subjects is to insist, as far as possible, that Literature is a matter for enjoyment and not merely an instrument for measuring, or a device for more easily comprehending, the niceties of grammar. Many a fine poem, or passage of prose, has been killed for all time for many a person by this process. This is not to say, however, that formal English and Literature can be divorced from each other and forced into separate compartments, but once a boy has mastered the use of the tools of writing the whole wealth of Literature is at his command. When a boy writes in an essay "The moon was sending out its silvery light and flooding the long ribbon of road," it is plain he knows Noyes's "The Highwayman." Again, when he writes: "The gentle wind drove his white-crowned clouds to the west," it is equally plain, to those who know, that he has been reading "The Argonauts" in Kingsley's "Heroes."

But Literature to be effective is not merely appreciation and assimilation of great passages of poetry and prose. It should be creative. A child should himself be encouraged to write not only in prose but also in poetry. To enable him to do this, it is necessary that his ear should be tuned and that he should be able to scan correctly. It is possible, even with quite small children, to get this done. The idea is to cultivate a sense of harmony and rhythm. The following is a fair sample of work recently done along these lines by a boy of twelve —

My home's beneath the sycamore
How oft doth memory linger near
A spot which to my heart is dear,
While plain a vision brightly shows
A rippling stream which gently flows
Along the deep and flowery vale,
Where bloom the lilies pure and pale,
Where stands upon the distant shore
My home beneath the sycamore "

"A rippling stream which gently flows" is a fine idea well expressed.

Most teachers of English know how difficult it is, in composition, to escape dreary openings to essays, and to get boys to write at length. The first is due to lack of free and independent thought, the second to a lack of background. The one is remedied only by creating the conditions of freedom and independence, the other by the widening influence of reading in those realms of Literature to which he should become accustomed.

It is not possible, in a few short notes, to deal with the books that are used. For formal English, perhaps the assignments prepared by the teacher are, in themselves, sufficient, but Kenny's (Arnold) or Marriott's (Harrap) exercises, or the New World English Course (Collins) are invaluable guides. In Literature, the choice of books is very wide, and covers every degree of difficulty. Such collections as the Golden Books of Verse (Blackie), the Carfax Books (Sidgwick and Jackson), the Way of Prose, or the Way of Poetry (Collins), and many others are exceedingly useful for poetry, while books like "The Heroes," "Water Babies," "Gulliver's Travels," "Treasure Island," and so on, may be had in numberless editions.

The work is always given in the form of Assignments. These are quite easily, though not quickly, drawn up. If the syllabus for the year be divided into as many roughly equal portions as there are school months in the year, each portion represents a monthly assignment. It is advisable, for ease of work, to sub-divide these again into weekly, or even daily portions. The daily portion is a unit of work. The following are specimens of weekly assignments in formal English and in Literature —

ENGLISH.

3rd Year. 6th Month.

Third Week.

- 1 Nouns or pronouns which stand for males are said to be in the Masculine Gender.
Nouns or pronouns which stand for females are said to be in the Feminine Gender.
Names that stand for things that are neither male nor female are said to be in the Neuter Gender. ("Neuter" is a Latin word meaning "neither.")
Words like child, people, enemies, which may mean either males or females, are said to be in the Common Gender.
Write the feminine of:
Man, boys, widower, earl, marquis, dukes, rams, horse, drake, bachelor
Write the masculine of:
Daughter, mothers, cow, goose, maid-servants, wife, lady, witches, mistress,
Use the feminine of the following words in sentences: Uncle, king, baron, tigers, lion, sons, author, Jew, peacock, sons-in-law

Write ten words in the Common Gender and ten words in the Neuter Gender. Use each word as the subject of a sentence

- 2 Write the following as you would write them on envelopes Your father, your mother, your sister, a boy friend, a clergyman, a doctor, a Member of Parliament, your schoolmaster, a soldier

You are on a ship and have been in mid-ocean for a week. Write a letter to your mother telling her how you spend your time on board Write notes before you start your letter You will be expected to write two pages.

(1 and 3 count for two units each, 2 counts for one unit, thus making the five units for the week)

LITERATURE.

2nd Year. 1st Month.

Third Week.

"Lochinvar" (Sir Walter Scott) Favourite Poetry Book IV Read the account of Scott's life and work given on page 58

You have probably heard stories about the wild life that the tribes living on the Scottish border used to lead. Perhaps you know the old Ballad of Chevy Chase We will study it one day when we have copies Scott made a famous collection of Scottish Border Ballads many of which had never been written down at all, but had lived in the songs of the border folk, remembered from generation to generation A number of people interested in the subject have recently made a collection of folk songs from countries all over the world much in the same way as Scott made his collection. If you would like to read some interesting stories about the Scottish border ask your teacher to lend you Scott's "Tales of a Grandfather" Ask him what pages to read

Before reading the poem, note that it is written in exactly the same metre as the one we have just been studying

Read the poem straight through Now write a few sentences saying why you think the poem was written in this metre (1 unit) For the second unit of work go through the poem carefully as directed for the second reading The following notes will help you —

- Line 9. Netherby Hall is by the Esk. Perhaps you can find Netherby Hall on the map
Line 20. "The Solway" is noted for the rapidity with which the tide comes in
Line 41 "Scaur"—a steep bank which is formed by a swiftly running stream (pronounced "skar")

The Graemes, Foresters, Fenwicks, etc., are the names of Scottish clans

For the third unit of work read the poem for the third time Tap out the time with your foot as you read

Note—The poem falls naturally into the following sections —

- Verses 1 and 2 Introduction Tells who Lochinvar was, and why he rode to Netherby
Verses 3 to 6 The scene in the Hall
Verses 7 and 9 The fight

Every poem that tells a story may be similarly treated For the fourth and fifth units of work imagine yourself one of the wedding guests Write

an account of what happened in the Hall Hand in your book when you have completed the work.

(These Assignments were drawn up by Mr. W R Arnold and Mr. F. M Moore respectively under the editorship of the present writer. They are published in Philip's Individual Work Series) The School Library plays a large part in the teaching of English In this respect the writer is happily circumstanced Every Senior Department in the district has been constituted a branch of the Central Public Library The scheme started by fitting up each of the departments with one hundred volumes. These have been added to each year till the total is now well over four hundred volumes They are permanent acquisitions The staff of the school has a share in the selection of them Almost every boy becomes a borrower, and usually he carries his "library" about with him in his satchel It is therefore always handy and always useful If the books are properly selected it can easily be seen what a boon they may be in the cultivation of taste, and the opening of the mind

A J LYNCH

DEVELOPMENT OF CREATIVE EXPRESSION.

Community School, St Louis, U S A

The teaching of English in Community School is considered an opportunity for guiding the spontaneous expression of children, whether it be the clarifying of the chatter of childhood in which children talk in order to possess the ideas which they are expressing or the stimulation to creative expression which grows out of a full cultural experience

Interest in every day activities often provides a means of beginning reading Such group interests as a visit to the corner grocery for the ingredients for cookies, the planting of bulbs, the making of a miniature farm, provide means for the making of simple sentences with sufficient repetition to fix the necessary words From the beginning we lead to a love and interest in the printed page, and when a reading interest has shown itself progress is usually rapid We do not over-stimulate the learning of reading nor is the ability to read the basis of promotion from the first grade class—the six-year-olds—to the next higher grade Mental, physical and social maturity provide a better basis for promotion than the ability to read the printed page. However most of the children who are promoted can read Real interest as the basis of reading is justified by the fact that our records of testing at the end of last year show only one child above third grade to be below grade standard in reading and ninety-five per cent. of our sixth grade children—the eleven and twelve-year-olds—had a reading ability of eighteen years and above.

Children learn to talk well through much talking about topics of interest to them A morning discussion concerning the activities of the day precedes the day's work Informal discussion and constructive criticism by both teacher and children follow the day's activity The weekly assembly period is often given over to representatives of different classes who tell about the outstanding activities within their groups The process of brick laying learned by the second grade in building a house, English castle life in a higher grade, stories of Indian life, a circus in the kindergarten, the representation of an ocean, miniature log cabins of colonial times—these are some of the interesting things to tell about

Such widening of contacts with things and persons is a means of enlarging and clarifying the vocabulary of children and directing language into consciously conveying knowledge and assisting thought.

Oral language is the basis of written language. Formal technique is acquired as an aid to self-expression, a tool to use in a conscious need, attained intelligently because of a felt need. When the child's ideas outrun his ability to express them in writing, there is danger of inhibiting creative qualities unless the necessary techniques are learned. However, standardizing individual attainment within a group is as dangerous as neglecting techniques. Mediocrity is produced when the writing of children is expected to conform to a set pattern.

From the spontaneous efforts of a class to write something for which there is a need, as the adventure each one has written to tell of a Norse feast which marked the ending of a Norse project, the teacher studies the papers to see what are the needs of this particular group and to ask himself such questions as: Are these children able to express their thoughts in writing? What are their needs? Do they spell sufficiently well? Is capitalization and punctuation sufficiently well fixed to make meaning clear? Are they able to express thought well and consecutively? Do they write well enough for legible reading? What is the most urgent need as a class? What are the outstanding needs of individual children?

With such analysis as a point of approach, technique is taught in order that meanings may be made clear. If both teacher and children feel the need of technique, the monotony of the necessary study and drill is felt to be a necessary means to an end and not a teacher imposed task.

Original stories, poems and plays are written because there is an urge for expression. A rich background of poetic material is supplied through the reading of poems suited to child interest. The teacher who loves poetry and sees its creative possibilities leads from a love and appreciation of poetry to the desire to create. The kindergarten teacher records the rhythmic expression of small children and reads this to the group for discussion and criticism. The poems of Hilda Conkling and those published by the Lincoln School fire children with the desire to write their own poems. Imitation plays a large part in the creative work of children but it must not continue too long if we are striving for sincere expression.

A group of sixth grade boys and girls after singing the poems of Milne's "The King's Breakfast," began to set their poems to music. This was followed by large coloured illustrations of the poems selected. It was but a step to writing, setting to music and illustrating their own poems. A girl made a picture and poem of winter, representing a frail old man with white locks. An athletic boy said "Winter is not weak, but strong. His breath makes the earth icy and cold." He made a picture and a poem of a strong, muscular man breathing his icy blast upon a sleeping world.

The dramatic impulse is seen in the natural, rhythmic and imaginative plays of the kindergarten and first grade. "Little Black Sambo" in the first grade with little costuming and simple talking as worked out by the children, "Cinderella" made into a puppet show in the next higher class, original plays illustrating Hebrew life made by committees

of children, the fourth grade room made into a sailing vessel of the time of Columbus with each child living the part of an explorer, the worship of Osiris, the festival plays of the Greeks—all of these are evidences of the dramatic interest of young children. The acting flows naturally and spontaneously from the child's imaginative life. The purpose is for expression and not for a finished performance. If children are giving of their best interpretation, it is acceptable and educative even though it is very crude.

English within the Community School furnishes opportunity for the development of creative expression. It binds together the interests and activities of childhood, making for integration of life and aiding in educating the whole child. Understanding teachers set conditions which call out the spontaneous expression of childhood, helping children to help themselves, disclosing interests present but not evident, stimulating and guiding the creative expression.

VIRGINIA E. STONE

ENGLISH WORK OUTSIDE THE FORM-ROOM.

Luton Modern School for Girls.

Earlier in the year the Poetry Society offered a prize of a Lucretius bust of Tennyson for the best Anthology of Poetry from any school. We submitted an anthology of poems taken from the first nine issues of the school magazine *The Sheaf*, and according to the decision given—though there were many entries, and though at least one other school ran us very close—as our verse had "a generally higher standard than that of any other school" we were adjudged the victors. Three prizes were given for individual poems, three poems were "highly commended," and six were commended.

One of the girls won the first prize in the "Elder Open Class" for girls of 15—17, and one was commended. These two were the only girls from the school to compete in this class.

All the "literary" items in *The Sheaf* had first appears in the Form Magazines, which are brought out three times a year (once in every term) by every form. These Form Magazines contain all kinds of things of interest to the particular form only, and drawings, cartoons and so on (every girl is supposed to try to produce something and the Magazine Committee choose what shall appear). These things cannot, even if they are good, and very many of them are, find a place in *The Sheaf*, but articles and poems of general interest and of a certain standard have a chance of being considered by the Editor.

I always read through the Form Magazines myself, make general comments on the work, give advice of various kinds, and tell the girls which "things" may be given in to the Editor of *The Sheaf* for consideration. A most marked improvement has been made since the first Form Magazines were produced—very great trouble is taken over them, and much interest is shown in the criticisms and in the results.

The English and general culture of the school generally has much improved since the introduction of what we call the "Ten Minutes." This is a "system" by which the mistresses in turn give "hour" talks to the girls. The method is this.—On the Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays of every two consecutive weeks between 9—1 and 9—11 a.m. before prayers every Form has a talk from a mistress on any subject she pleases, and in this way

the general knowledge and interest of the girls is much increased

We have besides a Literary Society run by the elder girls with the advice of one of the "English" mistresses. This Society meets about three times a term, and talks by outside people, debates, readings, dramatic renderings and so on have their turn.

Every week on a particular day another of the English mistresses reads for an hour after school to any child from the third and second forms who likes to listen. This is a much loved hour. I believe I am right in saying that the book that has been the most liked book is Hugh Walpole's "Jeremy" (and "Jeremy and Hamlet").

The Reference Library is open every day after school from 3.30—4.30 for any girl in the school (till 5 o'clock for the older girls), and there is in it a Junior Reference Section for the younger ones. We are also beginning an "Original" Section. Of course, the girls are able often to use the Library during school hours, but I am dealing with "out of school" time.

We have held "Eisteddfods" in which the Houses and members of the Houses have competed in singing, recitation and so on. We have frequent small dramatic performances got up by the girls themselves, and from time to time school dramatic performances in which any girl who likes may take part. In the Summer of 1927 we acted Alfred Noyes' "Robin Hood" with about 176 performers, five of them members of the staff. In the Spring of this year the Second and Third Forms gave "Alice in Wonderland" and "Alice Through the Looking Glass," and 134 children had parts. The chief parts were duplicated in order to give more people a better chance, and we gave, in all, six performances.

With both these "large" attempts (the "Robin Hood" and the "Alice") the dresses were designed and cut out in school, and the scenery was designed and painted by staff and girls.

I have not talked about the ordinary or what one might call the "Classroom" work in English, and I would only add that we work for the ordinary school examinations (the Cambridge "School Certificate" and "Higher School Certificate") as do all schools, that we make a great effort to make the work "living," by trying all kinds of plans, and as far as we can "scholarly," and that we find the "Classroom" and the "Out-of-Classroom" work (if one can distinguish them) of mutual benefit to one another.

HELEN K. SHELDON

FREEDOM OF CHOICE

The Garden School, Lane End Bucks

As in the case with all our other work here, the principle underlying our study of English is freedom for the child.

We believe that the maximum of benefit is derived from what is initiated by the children themselves. We issue no assignments. The children are free to pursue any line of literary study in which they themselves are interested, and as soon as this leads to the development of another focus of interest and they wish to concentrate upon that they are allowed to do so.

It is difficult to give an idea of the work we do, just because there is no cut-and-dried syllabus or scheme, which is followed year after year either by any one group, or by the school as a whole. A

year's study in any group starts with what, at the beginning of the year, specially interests the pupils who compose it and it evolves as it goes along, many minds contributing to give it its ultimate general direction.

We do not approach our teaching of English from the point of view of the subject, but from that of the child. Whatever helps his spirit to grow, his mind to expand and his powers to increase, is right for him. We encourage the children to drink deep of the thoughts and emotions which, expressed in terms of beauty, awaken in them the profoundest and the most spontaneous response. Knowledge of what Dryden, Pope or even Wordsworth wrote and how they wrote it is of less value to the individual child than the discovery of what, in the best literature, excites his own imaginative and creative instincts. It is this which forms his own present point of contact with English literature, and through this he can eventually reach all the rest. Accordingly, we keep records of what work has been done instead of prescribing what has to be done.

On one occasion, to test the method, we took a census of the reading of the whole school, and the result was interesting.

Last year (Sept., 1927) our three senior groups chose to concentrate on (1) modern literature, (2) the growth of the drama.

Their study of modern literature began with the 17th century and then worked through the 18th and 19th into the 20th. Their reading of 20th century literature included poetry by Flecker, Hardy, Housman, Kipling, Belloc, Chesterton, Massfield, Brooke, de la Mare, essays by Galsworthy, E. V. Lucas, Tagore, and nineteen plays by Galsworthy, Housman, Shaw, Massfield and Barne, many novels.

Lectures on literary subjects, the result of independent research work, figured in the children's end-of-term functions throughout the year. Individual children gave lectures to the whole school on the life and work of William Blake, Charles Lamb, Emily Brontë and Austin Dobson, a co-operative lecture on "Eighteenth Century Literature" was given by three girls, one of whom dealt with its poetry, another with its essays and the third with its drama.

Drama is a vital force in our English training. Some part of the literary work done during each term, by every group in the school, is always acted and complete plays are produced from time to time. Among those acted in their entirety may be cited "Everyman," "Twelfth Night," "Quality Street," "Androcles and the Lion," "The Little Plays of St. Francis."

Enough original drama is composed by the children every year to fill the major part of a programme of original compositions in drama, music and dance for a concert which we give annually in London.

Every term the children bring out a magazine containing original verse, prose, plays and drawings. This is unaided work and its contents are a profound secret, until it makes its appearance, generally on the last day of term.

To celebrate the completion of the school's first decade, we have just published an anthology of verse, selected from these magazines.*

L. WINTFRED NICHOLLS

*The Garden School Book of Verse and Prose Lyrics

LITERATURE.

Francis W. Parker School, Chicago

The aim of this department is to introduce children to a few of the very best things in literature, and to foster a taste for wholesome books. Each year some unit of great literature forms the core of the literary study. This is supplemented by as many allied and contrasting shorter units of writing as can be assimilated readily by the children.

Story-telling, dramatization, the hearing, learning, and reciting of poetry, and the making of original stories and verses, all form a very vital part of the course in literature. Effort is made to direct the children's outside reading by means of the following devices carefully worked-out book lists, loan libraries made by the children themselves, talks with the mothers of each grade, individual conferences with the children, bringing the children themselves into contact with collections of books which have been chosen with special reference to their needs and tastes; and the occasional reading aloud to them from some worth-while book.

Oral Expression

The school aims to give all of its members impelling motives for oral expression and many genuine opportunities for appearing before an audience. The socialized recitation, the inter-class meetings, the student government conferences, the daily morning exercise, special day exercises, annual festivals, school plays, the forum, and similar motivations and projects, give legitimate occasion for growth in expressive skill.

English Composition

The children write of their own experiences of life, from the time they visit the farm in the autumn of the first year in the school to the months in eighth grade when they make for themselves a small, unprinted publication consisting of stories, verse, and articles which are chosen critically by the group.

Formal English

Under "formal English" we include all matters of punctuation and spelling. We conceive it to be the duty of a school to establish correct habits as early as possible and to safeguard them thereafter. We have therefore determined among ourselves which matters shall be dealt with specially in each grade, and we have differentiated between those practices with which we merely acquaint the children in a given school year and those which we attempt to fix more firmly in their consciousness.

Matters of form are always subordinated to creative values in composition teaching, in the sense that we attempt to have children always write for the sake of what they have to say and never as a mere formal exercise. But whatever is written must be correct before it is accepted or destroyed, and what is far more important, devices of form are almost always aids to the fullest or most adequate written expression, and therefore come to interest children through their real significance.

SPONTANEOUS SELF-EXPRESSION.

Parc Wern School, Swansea, S. Wales

The central idea in the teaching of English at Parc Wern is to help the child to express himself and reproduce his impressions spontaneously.

The school activities and interests are as wide and varied as possible, and the children's libraries are well supplied with books likely to appeal to and direct all the curiosity and questioning these interests arouse. This living and reading together give the child something really worth talking and writing about.

From the first when the child realises the joy and interest of being able to write down his thoughts, he is encouraged to write stories, accounts, letters, jingles and poems. The bigger children keep diaries, nature records, and accounts of their school journeys. They have produced magazines and newspapers, and at one time this last year worked together to write books for a library of their own making. The variety of subjects these books represented was interesting; they varied from books of poems, fairy stories, adventure tales to a History of England from the landing of the Romans, a very technical book on Cricket, and a volume on Trees. Our difficulty and that of the busiest children is finding enough time to do justice to all these productions.

The children chose their own collections of poems from books and those which they hear read to them, and many of the children write poetry of their own. Considerable time is given to the production of plays and dramatizing stories and ballad poems.

DOROTHY HALL

SCHOOL SOCIETIES.

Friends' School, Saffron Walden, Essex

We rely a good deal on voluntary work done by the children as members of Junior, Middle or Senior Literary Societies. There are also two Reading Clubs amongst the older girls and boys. They select books to read, and hold meetings at which the books are discussed.

Each of these Societies has two or three members of the staff amongst its members, and they share with the children in the management of the meetings, and take their turns at contributing essays, etc.

C. BRIGHTWEN ROWNTREE

CONTACT WITH GREAT WRITERS.

Gresham's School, Holt, Norfolk

Throughout the school the Summer Term each year is reserved for Shakespeare. In the highest set is read one of the greater tragedies; in the others, some other play, tragic, historical or comic. A stimulus to dramatic appreciation is given by the yearly school play, some one of Shakespeare's which is suitable for a woodland theatre.

In the other terms of the year, for the highest set there is a syllabus of two years, arranged round an "Outline History of English Literature," in the course of which there are read, besides the history, some principal works of principal authors. But the syllabus always commences with a term for Homer in translation, alternately *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. This can be dovetailed into English literature by continuing with Chaucer. The next two sets study works set for the School Certificate Examinations. The rest read in general a book of selections by Miss Elizabeth Lee, with variations or amplifications according to the judgment of the master of each set. For the three lowest sets there are also grammar, analysis, etc.

All sets, high or low, do regularly periodical essays or other practice in composition, the number

of each kind each term varying at the judgment of the set masters

WELL EQUIPPED FOR DRAMATIC WORK.

The North Shore Country Day School, Winnetka, Illinois

We are doing nothing which I consider distinctive in our English department although I think the work is good. Of course we use dramas whenever possible, and are equipped with a large auditorium and a well-lighted stage (three-colour system), so that it is perfectly easy for the children to dramatize at any moment. The parents have a good deal to do with the keeping of the costume room, the children making nearly all of their own costumes. We now have on hand a large store of costumes so that it is easy to costume almost any play at a few moments' notice. There are two rehearsal stages in addition to the big stage which are available, and the English rooms are equipped with movable furniture so that we can rehearse on the floor of the class-room whenever it is necessary. I find that the children drop into dramatic form of expression very easily and we are using it constantly.

PERRY DUNLAP SMITH

SPEECH TRAINING FOR "BABIES."

Denmark Hill L.C.C. School, Camberwell, London

For the little ones first comes the allure of picture or toy. They describe a certain picture in phrases that are set in jingle form to make the colour, speech or movements of a toy focus in a phrase or two. Let us take a picture always before their eyes—not to be ignored for it is on a window that must be opened each morning. The first picture is of the sea with rocks, ships, and a lighthouse on the cliff. As the window is opened the class turn to greet the effect of the sliding glass and repeat the jingles—

1. "The lighthouse light shines on the sea
And says to the ships don't sail near me"
2. "Two little ships sailing on the sea
Bringing back fish for you and me"

These phrases are made alive by the pictures. The pronunciation of each must be careful, the enunciation of initial, central and final sounds exact, the tone musical, every word lending itself to dramatic effect.

In forming phrases and jingles one takes into consideration the love of youth for repetitions, for colour, for movement.

For example, McWhirter's "Highland Stream"

The purple headed mountain,
The blue grey sky,
The red-brown bracken,
The river running by
or The gold and silver birch trees,
The grey rocks by the side,
The dashing, foaming white crests
When the waters o'er them glide

These are the toys, too, for helping concentration or phrase and sound.

This use of "picture" and "toy" phrasing lends valuable aid and can be carried into many places, applied to many objects.

A favourite speech lesson is always carried on out of doors in good weather, or at the door or window in cold, rainy times.

There is a charming place under trees where, standing or sitting on the grass, the children listen to the nature sounds. There are birds flying and singing, leaves dancing, branches swaying and swinging, and on these may be built many jingles.

The winds are gentle, the skies clouded lightly, there comes a musical chant where vowels are most specially attended to.

"White clouds are sailing, sailing, sailing high up in the sky,

Birdies are flying swiftly, swiftly by"

Or, in Autumn or late Summer, when trees are awayed and the wind is heard, comes a "pretend" chant or recitation, from trees and wind.

Trees. Oh dear, oh dear, I much do fear

Now Autumn's here I shall lose my lovely leaves

Winds with wailing noises reply

Sh. Yes you will

We'll blow you off! We'll spin you round!

And scatter you all upon the ground

For dramatic effects these shivering, pleading trees, these wailing winds are much appreciated.

These exercises deal with spoken English in a very juvenile class, as well as jingles, questions and answers, conversation generally are treated in a similar way.

In the next grades the exercises will naturally vary. More words will be employed, longer phrases, and greater exactness required.

The pictures are still employed as phrase illustrations—the recitations are more difficult perhaps—but as in the "Babies" "recitations" the old nursery rhymes with their lilt, their repetitions, their often intensely dramatic effects, will play a large part in the presentation of spoken English.

E. M. CHRISTIE

THE ENGLISH ROOM.

Bloomfield Road L.C.C. Girls' School, Woolwich, London

Work in the English room in Bloomfield Road Girls' School, where the Dalton Method is in operation, begins with two half-hour periods of formal English, taken with different groups, when difficulties arising in the assignment can be solved and new work taken, for instance, Group C having a collective lesson from 9.30, will proceed at 10 to geography while Group D may have formal English.

At 10.45 individual work begins, ending at 12. Children from any of the four groups, A, B, C or D, who have elected to do English that morning find a seat, read their assignment, procure the apparatus they need and work independently at their various tasks.

Some may be reading or writing from the literature assignment, while others will be working a formal English exercise or writing an essay; poetry is being learned, recited and composed, while groups may be working together to rehearse a play made by themselves from their reading book.

In this hive of industry the mistress is constantly employed in guiding, correcting, and checking assignments.

Owing to lack of space and the large number on roll the room is overcrowded, but children learn to adapt themselves to conditions and move here and there to procure a reference book, consult the mistress, discuss with a friend, or prepare a model without disturbance.

In the afternoon an hour's literature with one group or another precedes individual work. This is kept as a period of appreciation, so that that inspiration only to be gleaned from the reading aloud of the poet's words is not lost.

A careful choice of the books and poems to be read and a variety of exercise in assignment work,

with help from the public library, has resulted in much voluntary reading and original work, all of which means that the children are learning to use their leisure wisely, a valuable asset when school life ends.

MARGARET BYRON

Retirement of Dr. W. H. D. Rouse

Perse School, Cambridge

We are happy to be able to print the following appreciation of Dr. Rouse, who retired from the Headmastership of the Perse School, Cambridge, last July, after holding that office for twenty-eight years.

Dr W. H. D. Rouse is a man of heroic mould and one of our great Headmasters. Short of stature but great of spirit he recalls the description of Dr Keate: "In that small space was concentrated the courage of ten battalions."

Others will tell of his scholarship and wide culture and of his real genius as a teacher, which has made him not only a pioneer in language teaching, both ancient and modern, but a life-giver to his pupils, "opening to them new horizons" as one of them said, and transforming lessons into an absorbing quest. I, whose privilege it has been to work under him during almost the whole of his Headmastership, wish to try and give some idea of his spiritual power as a man and as a Headmaster.

Perhaps the secret of this power lies in the fact that in him the man is dominant, superseding the Headmaster. He has no professional manner, his dignity, his geniality are equally human and natural, he is genuine to the core, he speaks—in his gentle and occasionally incisive tone—as one having inward authority. He never preaches, is never rhetorical.

His great work has been that of giving the Perse School a spiritual tradition—a tradition of honest and free self-expression, without cant or formalism of any sort, of mutual trust and tolerance, of loyal service, and above all of friendliness. And this is the fruit less of what he has said than of what he has done and been. In his house, in the school—whether in the class-room, in the common-room or at masters' meetings—he created an atmosphere of goodwill, of give and take, such as is rarely found outside the family circle. Discipline he insisted on as a necessary condition of efficiency, but he never made a fetish of it. In difficult situations his appeal was always to the heart. Once, on entering a study in which some quarrel was going on, he found the floor littered with paper, and on finding the two culprits—older boys—obdurate, when he told them to clear up the mess, each saying that it was the other one's business, he merely said: "Well, the mess must be cleared up, and if neither of you will do it, I'll do it

myself," and proceeded to do so! He would not punish for a serious offence unless the boy admitted his guilt, and was often satisfied with a heartfelt expression of regret. Here is an instance of his lighter vein of rebuke. At a masters' meeting a clever young boy was being discussed, who was often rather a nuisance in class, and one of the masters said: "The fact is he asks too many questions." Whereupon the Doctor said with a genial smile: "Has he been asking you some that you could not answer?" and passed on.

In short he has shown himself an educator in the highest sense, for he did not separate mind and heart, his aim was to impart not knowledge only but wisdom.

He completely identified himself with his school, showing to it, to its staff and to its friends the same unswerving loyalty and devotion as to his own friends and, often at great personal sacrifice, the generosity of one whose left hand knows not what his right hand does.

Modest and reserved, ever forgetful of himself and infinitely considerate of others, he is withal a man of deep and sometimes passionate feeling, equally impulsive in generosity and indignation, but his heart is in the right place and one cannot but love so frank and open a nature. In the common-room he was one of ourselves, always ready with a cheering word, a wise counsel or a good story, for none can be more hearty or fond of a joke than he, and, himself once a pioneer on the Assistant Masters' Association, he was undefatigable in the furtherance of our interests even at the cost of his own. I don't suppose any other Headmaster has as full a time-table as he had.

His ever present sense of underlying realities, his complete independence of convention, of the opinions of others, of all shibboleths, was well expressed the other day by Sir Fabian Ware, when he said in proposing his toast: "He will admit no intermediary between himself and his Country, his King and his God."

In a word his example during 28 years has left us a spiritual legacy infinitely precious, which it will be our highest privilege to maintain—the legacy of a true man, who never compromises with his conscience but fearlessly does what he thinks right, the fire of an all-absorbing zeal in the pursuit not of what pays but of what is best.

NOTES

Child Guidance Council

The London County Council has accepted the Child Guidance Council's offer to establish a Child Guidance Clinic in London. Children will be referred to the Clinic by the School Medical Officers, subject, of course, to the consent of their parents. The L.C.C. is willing to use the Clinic in this way for an experimental period of three years. The Clinic will open in April, 1929. It will not be limited to children referred to it by the L.C.C., and it is hoped that social agencies and individuals will also use the Clinic. The practical training of Social Workers is to be included in the scheme. (*Child Guidance Council, 24, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S W.1*)

Films for Children

In March the Bernstein Theatres inaugurated a scheme for providing special programmes for children on Saturday mornings. By May simultaneous performances were given at four theatres. Upwards of 30,000 children have attended the performances. While these morning programmes were given the usual cheap admission to children on Saturday afternoons was suspended in the theatres concerned and consequently the number of children attending the usual adult performances decreased considerably.

It is important that this work should be encouraged and that it should be extended to other districts. Correspondence should be addressed to *Children's Film Section, Bernstein Theatres, 197, Wardour Street, London, W.1.*

Educational Films

A catalogue of educational films has been issued by the Federation of British Industries (39, St. James's Street, London). The films listed are both of the standard size as used in picture theatres and of the size suitable for the classroom. This catalogue is an encyclopædia of the educational resources of British cinematograph production.

The Children's Theatre (81, Endell Street, Shaftesbury Avenue, London)

The Children's Theatre has begun its winter season. Its purpose is to provide a permanent place of entertainment for young people all the year round. Its ideal is to produce an entertainment, colourful, tuneful and humorous that will appeal to children without striving to be consciously educational or highbrow. (*Nightly performances at 5.45. Prices 6d. to 5/9. Children under 12 half-price Telephone: Chancery 7944*)

Lectures in London

Psychological Types of Child and Adult

A course of ten lectures by Dr. Crichton-Miller, Fridays, 5.30 p.m., from Oct. 19th, at Friends House, Euston Rd., N W 1. Fee for Course, £1 10s. A few single tickets at 5/-.

English Traditional Stories and their History

A course of lectures by Francesca Claremont on Saturday mornings at Studio House, Rosslyn Hill, London, N W.3, from 6th October to 1st December. Fee for course, one guinea; single lectures, 4/-.

The Montessori Method

A series of eight lecture-demonstrations will be held on Saturday mornings from 6th October to 1st December by Mr. Claude A. Claremont. Fee for course, one guinea. Apply Studio House as above.

Psychology in Sickness and in Health, in Childhood and Maturity

A course of lectures by Miss Mary Chadwick on Friday evenings at 48, Tavistock Square, W.C.1, from 5th October to 30th November. Fee for course, 15/-; single tickets, 2/6.

Lecture in Leeds

In Order to Inaugurate the Leeds Branch of the N.E.F.

Public Meeting in the University, Leeds, on Thursday, October 18th, at 7.30 p.m. Dr. J. B. Baillie, the Vice-Chancellor, will be in the chair. The

speakers will be Mr John Eades, Head Master of the Kirkstall Road Demonstration School, Leeds, and the Secretary of the English Section of the New Education Fellowship. Hon Sec of the Leeds Branch is Miss F Burrridge, Flat 2, 7, Clarendon Place, Mount Preston, Leeds.

Lecture in Chester

In Order to Inaugurate the Chester Branch of the N.E.F.

Public Meeting on Friday, Oct. 26th, at Love Street Central School, Chester, to be addressed by the Secretary of the English Section of the New Education Fellowship.

English Teachers Visit Poland

Twenty-eight sympathisers with new movements in education have visited Poland this summer and held a conference at the invitation of the Minister of Public Instruction. They have emphasised the suitability of the Dalton Plan to the developments now taking place in Poland. The idea of a visit of teachers to Poland originated with Miss Z. Umńska and Miss Kennedy, both of whom have done educational work in that country.

The leader of the party was Miss Belle Rennie, Hon. Secretary of the Dalton Association, and she was accompanied, among others, by Dr. C. W. Kimmins, Mr. F. S. Marvin, Miss Davies (Streatham Secondary School), Miss De Lissa, Miss Mackinder, Miss E. Cook (Dover), Messrs T. Dean and A. J. Lynch.

The party paid a series of visits to various towns and stimulated discussion wherever it went. The general impression was that education in Poland is forging ahead very fast and we hope that many further opportunities will arise to

bring English teachers more closely in contact with the changes that are taking place in education on the Continent.

Danish Section

A Section of the New Education Fellowship has now been officially formed under the presidency of Skoleinspector J. G. Arvin, of Copenhagen. A group of the Fellowship has been working for some time in Denmark with the support, among others, of Forstander P. Hogstrom and Dr S Nasgaard, and it is fitting that an official section should now come into being as a prelude to the strenuous activities that will precede and follow the Fellowship's conference in Denmark next year (see page 160).

St. Andrew's Summer School

A very successful Summer School for Teachers was held in St Andrew's during the last three weeks of July and the New Education Movement was well represented both in the list of lecturers and in the register of students. In some respects the School was of the nature of an International Conference on new educational ideas in Europe and America. Germany was represented by Dr Karl Wilker, who lectured on New Schools and Methods in Germany. France was represented by M. Roger Cousnet, who spoke on The New Education in France. Mile Hamaide, Brussels, gave two highly appreciated courses of lectures on the Dearly Method and Child Psychology. Dean Minnick, Philadelphia, gave a sketch of Modern Developments in American Education. One of the most popular series of lectures was that given by Professor T P Nunn, who dealt with the underlying tendencies in educational thought of which new school methods are the practical outcome. Nearly 400 teachers attended.

Scottish Section (N.E.F.)

At the annual general meeting held on May 26th in Edinburgh Dr William Boyd was unanimously elected in place of Mr Neil Snodgrass, the outgoing President. Miss Agnes Pirie, the excellent Secretary of Glasgow and West of Scotland, is leaving Scotland for a year, but this loss to the Section is minimised by the fact that her place is taken by Mr C M Race, Headmaster of Lochwinnoch School. Mr A E Fraser, the new Secretary for Edinburgh, Miss Lindsay having removed to England, has been elected to the General Council, and also Mr D Mackay, Dunfermline, and Miss Hogg, Newmans.

BOOK REVIEWS

Judgment and Reasoning in the Child. By JEAN PIAGET, Professor at the University of Geneva. Translated by MARJORIE WARDEN 256 pp. Kegan Paul 10/6.

This companion volume of *Language and Thought of the Child*, has been compiled with the same care for details, and contains a similar wealth of material and most valuable information concerning the dawning faculty for reasoning which we may observe in the child.

According to Professor Piaget's theories presented in this work, however, he seems to believe that the thought of the child is adequately represented by his use of language and speech forms and that this may never mislead the observer about the capacity for thinking. The possibility of the child being able to grasp a causality or relation without a corresponding facility for expression, is not presented in this book, and yet an adult may frequently realise the fact of interdependence or relationship of ideas without being able to make this verbally clear to another, and would certainly find it difficult to express in a foreign language. The young child is verbally in the state of using an unfamiliar vehicle for thought in language in many ways. The young child's capacity to reproduce the ideas in his mind by accurate speech or grammatic forms seems to be ignored or to have been overlooked, as though children had a language facility should they wish to make use of it, equal to that of a grown-up person, and what is missing from language is missing from thought.

Many of the illustrations of children's incapacity to reason are taken from their attempts to solve intelligence tests, so phrased as to mislead. This does not appear to be altogether a fair computation of the child's capacity to reason, because in many cases the language form is such that it is the child's knowledge of the words and their use that is being tested before the power of reasoning. One would like this question to receive attention. We are, unfortunately, only too apt in our dealings with little children to ignore the language factor, and to take for granted that they understand the meaning of the words and grammatical forms that we use as well as we ourselves.

One is filled with admiration of the amount of careful investigation which has gone to the making of this book, and the loving labour involved in collecting so much informative material, but one misses a further research which would have made this material the more interesting and added considerably to its value as a psychological record. This is some attempt to discover the meaning in the child's mind which it is obviously trying to convey rather than a constant pointing out that the child does not reason like the adult, which surely often rests upon the fact that the child has not yet had the experience nor the knowledge to see a causality or a relationship that exists between two ideas. It seems still more interesting to study the content of the child's mind and to try to discover from that how the world seems or what he wishes to express of the thoughts that he has, than to make a careful analysis of what the child cannot do—especially when this limitation may be largely a deficiency in verbal expression.

We are again surprised that no consideration is taken of the emotional inhibitions respecting the ability to grasp ideas, especially, for instance, that of family relationship. Definitions of the family, enumeration of brothers and sisters, is a matter so involved in emotional conflict in many cases, that it cannot rightly be left out in our computation of reasoning. Verbal confusion often arises from mental confusion and the illustrations that we are given in this book seem to point to this as an essential factor in the child's difficulties.

Once more Miss Warden has carried out her task of translator splendidly, but one wonders why such odd names have been given to the subjects of research. Many are reminiscent of the nonsense syllables of a psychological experiment—still when one reads of a child's name "Pig (age 9, backward)" one is forced to wonder if this is the usual appellation of the child, what part it has played in his backwardness.

MARY CHADWICK

Curriculum Making in an Elementary School. By THE LINCOLN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STAFF. Ginn 8/6.

The Lincoln School is an experimental school which specialises in curriculum making but it is primarily a real school and not a stereotyped experimental laboratory. It makes an effort to supply an environment in which the children and staff can work and play together.

This book, which is the co-operative work of the Staff of the Elementary Division, is a valuable record of the life of the school and of the experiments which have been made during the past ten years. There is a description of the school and the use which is made of assemblies, clubs, the library, special work rooms, etc.

As a result of the experiments carried out certain criteria for selecting the units of work have been evolved. For the help of teachers who wish to try some of the projects in their own schools the Staff of the Lincoln School have set out in this book what they have found to be the basic requirements of the teacher and the specific technique of teaching.

Detailed descriptions of the units of work used in different grades are given. Everyone who is interested in children will read the description of how the children came back after the holidays and read a bulletin put up by the teacher—

How did you come?

By train?

By boat?

By automobile?

and how from this they were led to describe their holidays. One boy declared he was going to build a farmhouse he had visited in Canada. Others agreed to help him and eventually a six-roomed farmhouse was built with bricks. Further work was done, the Fourth Grade being asked to help by making animals.

The wheat study undertaken by the Second Grade included visits to a flour mill, a bakery, and a macaroni factory. The children finished the study by writing a wheat play, which was given to the parents and children. The Fifth Grade studied the

transportation of water, while the Sixth Grade studied how man has made records or books throughout the ages. Many other units of work which have been tried out and found successful are described.

This type of work is carried on during the children's creative work periods and many other subjects are combined in the unit of work, e.g. the study of wheat meant that the children had to know something of weights and measures and the respective values of wheat, flour, macaroni, they had to read bulletins and in their wheat play they composed songs and rhymes.

Standardised tests have been used to judge the achievements in reading, arithmetic, spelling, etc., and the results listed, but the Lincoln School considers these achievements less significant than the opportunities offered by the units of work for the development of initiative, responsibility and creative-ness.

This book leaves no doubt in one's mind that the work of the Lincoln School is based on the real interests of the children, and that the results of this work are of great value. It is an inspiring book and one that has been looked forward to with interest for some time.

M. J. WELLOCK.

Inspirational Teaching. By GEORGE MACKANESS, M.A., Lecturer in English at the Teachers' College, Sydney, N.S.W. J. M. Dent and Sons 10/6 1927.

The remarkable output of books on the teaching and appreciation of English following the Board of Education's epoch-making Report published in 1922, and the appointment of "Q" to the English chair at Cambridge, has taught us to expect something rather exceptional in any new book on that subject. Mr. Mackaness's book claims the title on two grounds. It is the work of an Australian, and it is the work of a practical teacher.

Australia is perhaps of all English speaking countries the one from which least might be expected in the way of cultural stimulus. You have only to contemplate its architecture, its postage stamps or the Anzac's reputation in billets and hospitals. Vigour, courage, physique, self-sacrifice—any amount of it! But the gentler refinements—No! It is all the more gratifying therefore to welcome a book which attempts to remedy this deficiency. The actual work of pupils quoted is not exceptional, but it compares very favourably with the average literary output of an English secondary school.

Secondly the book is the product of many years' experience and experiment in Secondary or (as they call them out there) "High" Schools. Not only has Mr. Mackaness apparently read every book written of recent years on the subject, but he is never tired of breaking new ground. Few teachers could read his book without finding most if not all of their own pet ingenuities therein recommended. The book is a mine of suggestions stimulating and practical, from the way to begin an essay to the graphing pictorially of the plot of a tragedy.

Inspirational Teaching is not a masterpiece of style like Mr. Greening Lamborne's *Rudiments of Criticism* or Mr. Sampson's *English for the English*, but it amply justifies its title. If not exactly inspiring, it is undoubtedly "inspirational," and should

prove invaluable to any teacher as a source of useful

The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools. By H. C. MORRISON, Professor of Education, University of Chicago.

An original and epoch-making book based on hard thinking, experimental experience and an understanding of school life.

There is a strong attack on American education as it exists, but destruction is invariably followed by construction, and all other countries can profit by both.

The period of secondary education is defined as that which lies between the ages of about nine and fifteen when readiness for the high school should consist in "intelligent attitude towards the world in which the pupil lives, a just standard of moral and aesthetic values, a wide range of interests, the discovery of some dominating interest, and a capacity for self-dependent intellectual life." To secure this, the object of the secondary school is not to pass grades and gain credits but to use the subjects learnt as instruments of culture, and the teacher's object is the knowledge and study of each individual child so that he may be helped to adaptation to his environment. Hence teachers have no right to come to their work with a mere knowledge of the subjects they are to teach.

Co-operation is to take the place of competition. Rank in class is not to be the pupil's aim, but advance in his own powers. Adjustment, not performance, is to be the objective.

Every educator should study Chapters I. and II. most thoroughly, and then, as unfortunately the author's meaning of "units of learning" is not made plain enough early in the book, he should go to Chapters XXVIII, XXIX and XXX, and read and re-read these as he progresses through the book. He will find new theories on the need of economy in teaching, wise criticism on the misuse of modern methods, and on the mistakes of present school systems, interesting plans to secure attention; clear exposition of different types of teaching and of learners, and much help as to the aim of education and the teacher's needs, whilst illustrations and diagrams abound.

There is an atmosphere of moderation and common sense throughout the book, and warning is given that no school can be made over even in a brief period in its whole theory and practice of teaching.

"Insight comes slowly." Advice is given on the teaching of different subjects. Whilst the needs of the individual are stressed class teaching is by no means neglected. The time-tables and curriculum become extremely elastic, and there is neither fixed age nor staged proficiency for promotion.

One doubt arises in the English mind, and that is whether the excessive care in watching the child's moral and intellectual progress may not be overdone at a loss of natural development.

ALICE WOODS.

More Stories and How to Tell Them. ELIZABETH CLARK. University of London Press. 3/6 net.

There are thirteen new-old little stories in this book, all founded on folk tales, legends or history (some of which have already appeared in "Child Education"). There is an introduction and then

comments after each story giving general and particular advice garnered from the experience that has grown from years of delighted and delighting storytelling. Miss Elizabeth Clark shows how storytelling, whether to a grown-up audience in a lecture hall or to one small boy, is and must be an art and like all true arts must be lived and not just represented. She gives practical suggestions both as to general attitude and to technical details that might enable the story-teller, in spite of all modern criticism, to fulfil his historical and honoured rôle.

The Unconscious in Action (its Influence upon Education). By BARBARA LOW, with foreword by T. PERCY NUNN, Professor of Education in the University of London. University of London Press. 5/-

Psychoanalysis, originating as a curative method, and developing throughout in relation to the field of medical treatment, has had three other main lines of application to psychology in general, to philosophy, and to educational theory and practice. Whatever the fate of Freudianism and its rivals or offshoots in the domains of philosophy and general psychology, there can be no doubt as to the revolutionary influence of Freudian theory upon practice, in the pedagogical world no less than in the therapeutic. An educationist whose dealings with young people are uninfluenced by the new psychology is as mid-Victorian (dare we say as mediæval?) as a doctor who never turns a patient over to the psychoanalyst. But the case need hardly be argued to the readers of the "New Era."

They will find in Miss Low's book a valuable and stimulating guide to the use of these fresh lights in their educational work. It contains six chapters the bearing of psychoanalysis upon education; unconscious mind and its rôle in education, behaviour as conditioned by subconscious wishes, emotion and its relation to intellectual development; sublimation and education; some modern educational developments from the psychoanalyst's standpoint. We heard this work in the making, when the author recently delivered a course of lectures on the topic, and we heartily welcome it in its finished form.

E. and C. P.

The Approach to History. By F. CROSSFIELD HAPPOLD, D.S.O., M.A., with an introduction by G. P. GOOCH, D.Litt., F.B.A. 7½ by 5 102 pp. Christophers. 3/6

"Middle-aged readers," says Dr. Gooch in his introduction, "will learn from these pages with surprise and delight that a revolution in the teaching of history has occurred since the days of their youth." Teachers, who know something of the progress of that revolution, will find the late Senior History Master of the Perse School (Mr. Happold is now Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury) in its very van; and if they dare to accompany him both they and those whom they teach will have happy and profitable travelling.

Mr. Happold's idea of the approach to history is "to give the young pupil a framework into which the details of his later studies may be fitted." He says "One may aptly call it the making of a map of history," and in that sentence one catches his attitude. "All boys," he declares, "are potentially makers," and from the start he develops that potentiality. The drawings, the charts, the songs, plays,

prose passages which his pupils have made prove that not only does Mr. Happold know how to encourage right making, but also that his boys get through his methods that inner realisation of the meaning of history without which all history teaching is vain and unprofitable.

I would like to say much more about this fascinating book, but I fear to give teachers any excuse for not buying it. It should be in every staff library, and every teacher of history should shortly possess a well-thumbed copy.

H. C. DENT

Education and Internationalism. Friends' Book Centre, Euston Road, London, N.W.1 2d

A Memorandum issued by the Central Education Committee of the Society of Friends, and submitted to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, on the choice of history and other books bearing on international relationships. It contains a useful bibliography for teachers on the teaching of universal history, manuals of general history for children; reform of the teaching of history from the point of view of the international spirit; English history; the teaching of geography, teaching concerning the League of Nations and peace and friendship between peoples, books for children; social education, plays for children, periodicals. A short list of organisations that publish useful pamphlets is given at the end.

The Home-Builders. Book II of the **Class Books of World History.** By HELEN COCKE 7½ by 5. 240 pp. Oxford University Press.

A book intended for children from 10 to 12. The development of civic and national institutions, of science and art, is outlined in a series of pleasantly told accounts. We begin with Caves, Pits and Tents, and finish with Home-Makers of To-morrow. The book is well illustrated with maps, pictures and charts.

Modern Language Learning. By J. J. FINDLAY, M.A., M.Ed., Ph.D., Honorary Professor of Education in the University of Manchester; with a foreword by W. W. VAUGHAN, M.A., M.V.O., Headmaster of Rugby. 7½ by 5 130 pp. The Gregg Publishing Co., Ltd. 5/-

This book contains first a study of principles, and then an advocacy of a specific method. Professor Findlay examines what is meant by learning a language, and the natural resistance we feel towards any foreign language, and shows how that resistance must be broken down by the teacher. He adopts as his motto *The Play as Centre*, and makes "the Theme the centre of the whole Introductory Course." The gramophone is to be used constantly to enable "memorizing and imaging of good Themes week by week and month by month until a great store of language has been laid up." (We once asked a Frenchman of much ability as a teacher whether he would care to have a gramophone and a stock of records for his lessons, and fled hastily from his answer! But then all teachers of French are not Frenchmen.) The idea is that before any other work is attempted the beginner must literally soak in good French or good German till its sound and its meaning have sunk into his very soul.

Criticism of Professor Findlay's advocacy of the Gregg Shorthand System "to discharge the func-

tions of an International Phonetic Code " we must leave to readers of his book, but we would much like to see his idea of a first year of Esperanto followed by a course in French or German adopted experimentally under varying conditions. After all, grammar is the chief bugbear of modern language teaching in the earlier stages, and if, as he suggests, that difficulty can be overcome in this way, so much the better for the child.

H C DENT

Elson and Child Library Series of Readers. Scott, Foresman and Co., New York.

These very attractive readers represent an organised programme of reading and literature. The Elson Readers form the basic section of the course for the elementary school and the Child Library Readers supplement this literature with special silent reading material, including a system of home and library reading projects that carry on the reading habits of the school into the home. The extracts, which include both verse and prose, are chosen from a wide field and are grouped around central themes, such as The World of Nature (Animals, Birds, Flowers, Trees and Winter), The World of Adventure (The Days of Chivalry, Narratives in Verse, A Tale from Shakespeare), Our Inheritance of Freedom (Stories and Songs of Liberty, Early American Spirit of Freedom), Literature and Life in the Homeland, etc., etc. The child who follows out this carefully planned course will have a keen human interest in books and writers, as well as an excellent literary foundation which will be of life-long value. The series is delightfully illustrated. *Literature and Life Series* (Scott, Foresman and Co., New York), composed of four volumes for the four years of the high school, provide an advanced programme of literature study, calculated to give the student a conception of the unity and continuity of the writing of the masters, both classical and contemporary. This series is also beautifully illustrated.

The Elson Child Library Series of Readers and the Literature and Life Series form a part of the Library of Text Books which the New Education Fellowship has undertaken to collect. They can be seen at the Fellowship's offices, 11, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Educational Broadcasting. Report of a Special Investigation in the County of Kent during the year 1927. Published by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees, Comely Park House, Dunfermline.

Many teachers want to know something of the possibilities of educational broadcasting before embarking on what is bound to be a comparatively expensive experiment. This report will be exactly what they desire.

Simple Composition Steps, by S N D, and **Primary Silent Reading**, by J A MASTERTON, M A. The Grant Educational Co (London), Ltd. Price 3/- per set and 10d per part, respectively.

This series of Simple Composition Steps consists of sets containing twelve brightly coloured illustrated cards, on which are several easy sentences containing one missing word each. The back of the card shows the missing words that have to be put in by the child. *Primary Silent Reading*, for children

between the ages of nine and eleven, is designed to lead up to *For Silent Reading*, and consists of easily handled, clearly printed, carefully graded books of reading matter, pictures, exercises, and games. Both series are well planned and should be interesting to children and instructive in the art of individual work.

Broadcast English. I. Recommendations to Announcers regarding certain words of doubtful pronunciation. With an Introduction by A LLOYD JAMES, Lecturer in Phonetics, School of Oriental Studies, University of London. The British Broadcasting Company, Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2.

We can heartily recommend this little pamphlet not only to intending announcers, but also to all who are interested in clear spoken English. The introduction, which composes two-thirds of the pamphlet, treats the subject in a broadminded and scholarly way, and should be of real help to teachers.

Cardboard Modelling. DIXON and BROWNING. Pitman. Volume I. 5/- net. Volume II. 4/- net.

The authors of these two volumes on "Cardboard Modelling" in their introduction tell us that "Handwork may be considered rather as a means of teaching other subjects than as a subject in itself." They make a strong claim for cardboard work. The materials are comparatively cheap, and the adaptability of an ordinary classroom to its practice makes an appeal for its adoption in these economical days; and, from the child's point of view, "The pupil sees immediately before him the results of a faulty measurement, and soon realises the necessity for absolute exactness in his undertakings."

The section devoted to materials, tools, and technique is full of sound advice, which is obviously the result of practical experience and sympathetic imagination without a hint of dogmatism. Indeed, "the models given under each respective subject are not advanced as a complete scheme, but more as suggestions of what may be done through handwork."

The first volume is devoted to the history of architecture, of vehicles, ships, engines of war and simple helmets. It is full of the stuff that appeals to the youthful imagination, beginning with simple models for the very young and developing into interesting exercises on castles and churches, providing plenty of fascinating work for older boys and girls. The complicated added buttresses and steps in some of the models, however, seem hardly worth the trouble they involve.

Children love vehicles, but principally because they move, and this section would have gained in value if the models had been designed with wooden axles and shafts and revolving wheels instead of the cardboard and stationary ones. And why should the motor-car be omitted?

The ships are delightful and practicable.

Any teacher who wishes the teaching of geography to be an intelligent thing will welcome the geographical section, and the models at the end of the series provide good advanced work for older children. (It seems a pity not to construct the waterwheel and windmill as working models.) There is a happy suggestion that children should place some models in original suitable settings for which no directions are given.

The second volume is a valuable one, from the comprehensive series of geometrical figures to the cardboard models involving the use of colour and applied design, and offering opportunities for the cultivation of individual taste.

Meretricious ornament is happily absent, and severity of line encourages careful work. Some may prefer to apply their decoration before cutting and assembling the parts of the models, as thin carton paper is apt to warp badly if painted after the object is completed.

The drawings are interestingly and clearly worked out from a standard sheet of card, and the whole collection will be of immense value to a teacher with imagination and a power of selection.

M. R. C. and M. C. W.

Report of the Committee on Universities and Training Colleges. Board of Education pamphlet. Price 9d.

The New Prospect in Education. Board of Education pamphlet. Price 6d.

These pamphlets should be in the hands of all teachers who want to keep abreast of educational work in their own country. The Report itself is the outcome of a conference of representatives of Universities, University Colleges, Training Colleges, etc., held at the Board of Education in 1926, when a Committee was appointed to investigate means of co-operation between the Universities and Training Colleges. This is the printed Report. It is full of interest to those concerned with the training of teachers.

Vistas of opportunities for the child population of Great Britain are opened out by the publication of "The New Prospect in Education." The Hadow Report, with which we are now all familiar, advocated the provision for every child over the age of 11 definite education in schools set apart and organised for that purpose. This new pamphlet discusses these suggestions in detail and gives examples of schools which have already attempted to put them into practice. This official expression of the Board's general conception of the place and value of education is proof that we are indeed on the march for, to quote from the pamphlet, "the advance contemplated is not a narrow and selective front, but the whole line is to move forward." "All sorts and conditions of children, the humble and the weak as well as the mighty and the strong," are to inherit in fuller

measure their rights to be trained as healthy, efficient and well-balanced citizens. It is tremendously encouraging to read an official document which is so human, and which stresses the fact that children of different capacities have different needs which must be met in different ways, hence the necessity for differentiation of curricula. Breadth of vision, an understanding of psychology and the true meaning of education seem to be the fundamental principles behind this official announcement of the Board's policy. The importance of the pamphlet cannot be overestimated, and we shall hope to see these newer theories speedily put into practice. D. V. H.

Your Nervous Child. By ERWIN WEXBERG, M.D. Albert and Charles Boni, New York, 8/6.

This book, based on Dr. Alfred Adler's "Individual Psychology," offers much help in the understanding of nervous manifestations in the child. "The 'nervous' child is the child who has lost courage to fight his way through, or who is struggling along the wrong road," writes Dr. Wolfe, in his "Translator's Preface." This discouragement is the result of many differing factors, chief among which are excessive severity and excessive softness in the education of the child. The urge to power in the child who has lost his courage to meet life as an independent being may manifest itself in a vast number of nervous and even physical symptoms. If he cannot attract attention to himself by excelling in creditable ways, he will become the centre of interest by means of some neurotic symptom, some unfortunate habit that singles him out from the rest. Disturbances of Nutrition and Digestion and Urination, Night Terrors, Anxious Children, Stuttering, Masturbation, Lying, Grimacing, Stubbornness, The Feeling of Inferiority, The Only Child, The Spoiled Child, The Will to Work, Reward and Punishment are some of the tropics treated in the book. D. M.

Two Essays on Analytical Psychology. By DR. C. JUNG. Baillière, Tindall and Cox. Price 10/6. Received too late for review in this issue.

The Practical Infant Teacher. Published by Sir I. Pitman and Sons, Ltd., in 30 fortnightly parts. Price 1/3 net each (See advt inside front cover).

ESPERANTO LESSONS

In order to encourage the study of Esperanto among teachers and especially among members of the New Education Fellowship, Prof. P. Bovet, of the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, has kindly prepared a series of lessons especially adapted to the needs of teachers and of those who attend international conferences at which Esperanto tends to be used more and more as the language for translations. Lesson IV is now ready and can be had free of charge on application. Copies of previous lessons are also available from The New Education Fellowship, 11, Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

